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SUPREME COMMANDER FOR THE ALLIED POWERS

Civil Affairs Section
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GENERAL HEADQUARTERS
SUPREME COMMANDER FOR THE ALLIED POWERS
Foreign Investment Board
APO 500

1 March 1951

FOREIGN INDIVIDUALS AND CONCERNS

LICENSED IN JAPAN

Addendum 8 to List of 1 July 1950

Compiled in Four Sections

SECTION I — Individuals and Concerns Authorized by SCAP to Engage in Commercial Transactions with Occupation Force Agencies and Personnel (OP)

SECTION II — Individuals and Concerns Licensed by SCAP to Disseminate Mass Communication Media (MC)

SECTION III — Occupation Personnel Licensed by SCAP to Engage in a Specific Business Activity in Japan

SECTION IV — Individuals and Concerns Licensed by the Japanese Government to Engage in Business of Banking, Insurance, Communications, Transportation, Public Utilities or Professional Services

SECTION I

Authorized to Engage in Commercial Transactions
with Occupation Force Agencies and Personnel

NAME	ADDRESS	FIB NUMBER
Capitol Radio Engineering Institute, Inc.	16th and Park Road, N. W. Washington 10, D. C.	FIB-OP-337
Cheng Tien Shun	dba Orion Store No.40, 4-chome, Karamono-cho Higashi-ku, Osaka	FIB-OP-334
Naraindas, J.	No.89, Yamashita-cho Naka-ku, Yokohama	FIB-OP-335
Orion Store	see Cheng Tien Shun	
Sharpe, Robert J.	dba Sharpe Associates 280 Ichinokura, Omori Ota-ku, Tokyo	FIB-OP-333
Taiyo-Tsusho Trading Co., Ltd.	No.6, 5-chome, Hachiman-dori Fukiai-ku, Kobe	FIB-OP-336

SECTION II

Licenses to Disseminate Mass Communication Media

(See end of Section for key to type of activity licensed)

NAME	ADDRESS	FIB NUMBER	TYPE
American Society of Composers, Authors, and Publishers, The	30 Rockefeller Plaza New York 20, N. Y.	FIB-MC-373	(4)
Chauvel Productions, Charles	c/o The Australian Mission Tokyo	FIB-MC-359	(3)
Commonwealth Fund, The	c/o Charles E. Tuttle Co. No.1, 1-chome, Kasuga-cho Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo	FIB-MC-370	(1)
Day Company, John, The	c/o Charles E. Tuttle Co. No.1, 1-chome, Kasuga-cho Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo	FIB-MC-365	(1)
Ealing Studios	c/o The Australian Mission Tokyo	FIB-MC-360	(3)
Foreign-Service Film Corp.	2015 S. Vermont Avenue Los Angeles, Calif.	FIB-MC-367	(3)
Hogarth Press, Ltd., The	c/o United Kingdom Liaison Mission, Tokyo	FIB-MC-371	(1)
Intercambio U.S.A.	439 South Detroit Street Los Angeles 36, Calif.	FIB-MC-372	(3)
Korda Films, Inc., Alexander	c/o London Film Productions, Incorporated 350 Fifth Avenue New York City, N. Y.	FIB-MC-357	(3)
Mexican Film Enterprises, Inc.	2015 S. Vermont Avenue Los Angeles, Calif.	FIB-MC-368	(3)
Miller, Joseph B.	Motion Picture Division GHQ, FEC APO 500	FIB-MC-358	(8)
Moodie, Dr. William	c/o Charles E. Tuttle Co. No.1, 1-chome, Kasuga-cho Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo	FIB-MC-366	(1)
Morris Agency, William	c/o Charles E. Tuttle Co. No.1, 1-chome, Kasuga-cho Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo	FIB-MC-364	(1)

SECTION II (Cont'd)

NAME	ADDRESS	FIB NUMBER	TYPE
Saroyan, William	c/o Charles E. Tuttle Co. No.1, 1-chome, Kasuga-cho Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo	FIB-MC-369	(1)
Strok, Awsay	119 West 57th Street New York 19, N. Y.	FIB-MC-361	*
United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization	c/o The French Mission in Japan, Tokyo	FIB-MC-363	(1)

KEY to mass communication media licenses.

Number in parentheses following the FIB number designates the type of license issued and corresponds to the numbered categories below:

(1) Assignment of translation and/or reproduction rights.

(2) Admission, publication and dissemination of magazines.

(3) Admission and dissemination of motion picture films.

(4) Authorization of performance rights.

(5) Admission and dissemination of news and photographic services.

(6) Admission and dissemination of newspapers.

(7) Admission and dissemination of books and/or periodicals.

(8) Production of motion picture films for domestic release and export.

(9) Admission and dissemination of sheet music and recorded music and business relating thereto.

* Arrangement of concert tour for Yehudi Menuhin in Japan

SECTION III

Occupation personnel licensed to engage in a specific business activity in Japan

NAME	ADDRESS	FIB NUMBER	TYPE
Uchiyama, June A.	Dependent Mail Section APO 15	FIB-MC-362	*

* To perform as vocalist and recording artist

SECTION IV

Japanese Government Licenses to Engage in Business of Banking, Insurance, Communication, Transportation, Public Utilities or Professional Services

NAME	ADDRESS	JG LICENSE NO.	ACTIVITY
Fan Kuo-Hsing	No.12, 1-chome, Miyagawa-cho Naka-ku, Yokohama	GSK - 129	Medical Practice
Hamilton, William F.	33, 3-chome, Den En Chofu Ota-ku, Tokyo	GSK - 126	Medical Practice
Schwersenz, Gerhard L.	10 Higashimachi, Shogoin Sakyo-ku, Kyoto	GSK - 130	Medical Practice
Sharpe, Robert John	280 Ichinokura, Omori Ota-ku, Tokyo	GSK - 125	Engineering Consultant
Upton, Herbert Victor Glyn	c/o The Shell Company of Japan No.58, Yamashita-cho Naka-ku, Yokohama	GSK - 131	Accountant

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5. On discussion:

A. What is Discussion?

It doesn't mean that the people gather and talk about at random. But it is a technique to exchange views carefully and eagerly with one another as regards the problems to which they all are related, in order to understand those problems well. In other words it means:

(1) To reach a conclusion or to trace the truth as regards a certain subject.

(2) To introduce the useful opinions of several or many persons.

(3) To exchange views on their own responsibility on a basis of those knowledges which were got through full investigation about the subject by each participator in discussion. Then, in order to have a good discussion the following conditions, as to speak, will be necessitated.

(1) To select a problem in which all the participators are interested.

(2) To gather those who are interested in the problem under discussion.

(3) To make the participators listen to others in an eager attitude.

(4) To make such a man preside as capable to lead not to make a discussion become dull.

B. Type of Discussion

The technique of discussion will be different according to circumstances whether a discussion is held by few people in a manner of listening to a lecturer and inquiring to him, or an organization sponsors a discussion about some subject and intends to make the members reveal their opinions in various respects of the subject, or other ways are adopted.

1. Round-table system

This is used for a group of few people. It has two types.

a) The one is a conversational discussion which is held by a little group with a chairman. The chairman opens the meeting introducing the subject of discussion briefly. During a discussion he encourages utterance, sometimes makes questions, and makes the discussion proceed. Finally he sums up the viewpoints of participators and ends the discussion.

b) The other is similar to the above, but different from it in that three to seven speakers give the audience explanations about the problem.

These speakers sit down in a form of semicircle towards the audience. Freely they discuss with question and answer to one another. If a discussion is made in this way it is desirble to consult in advance as regards questions and answers so that the discussion is put in order . A chairman in case of this type of discussion should not be an active leader excluding the case of call to order or adjournment. But he takes part in the discussion as a mere participator. The two above types are named the round-table system.

2. Panel system

This is for many persons. It is a constructive and democratic method. Three to seven speakers sit down toward the audience in a form of panel. They discuss in a conversational way. The audience take occasion to participate in the discussion. The discussion is conducted in main as follows:

(1) The chairman calls to order explaining briefly about the subject.

(2) Each speaker of panel reveals his opinion briefly for five to ten minutes about the subject.

(3) After that the subject is discussed in a conversational way.

(4) The chairman makes the audience take part in the discussion seizing an opportunity.

3. Symposium system

In this system three or four speakers talk about the subject briefly, then reply to the questions from the audience. The system applies to the more persons than in the panel system. The speakers don't discuss with one another. Usually the question is directed to a certain speaker but not to the whole speakers. It is characteristic of this system.

C. Rules for chairman at a discussion meeting.

Whether a discussion meeting will be successful or not depends upon a skill of a chairman. So the duties of, or rules for a chairman are enumerated as given below.

(1) To outline the subject of discussion briefly, explain its purpose, and start the discussion.

(2) To encourage the participators of discussion to discuss or to question.

(3) To bring foreward the important points of the discussion with emphasis.

(4) To sum up the utterance of the participators occationally.

(5) To make a significant and provocative question if the discussion becomes dull.

(6) To make speakers speak so loud as to be heard by the whole members.

(7) To make efforts to mediate if any keen conflict of opinions happens and to avoid struggles in an opportune way.

(8) To see to it that special members don't monopol the discussion.

(9) To make efforts not to make the participators deviate from the subject.

In such a way, a Chairman should lead a discussion indirectly, Praise good utterances, keep order of a meeting, put the whole process of a discussion meeting in order and lead it to a success.

CIVIL INFORMATION OFFICER

K-1269

GENERAL HEADQUARTERS
SUPREME COMMANDER FOR THE ALLIED POWERS
Civil Information and Education Section
Information Division
Policy and Programs Branch

PRINCIPLES and TECHNIQUES of PUBLIC INFORMATION IN JAPAN

Proceedings of the
Civil Information and Education Section
Information Institute

SESSION NO. 3

MAKING YOUR AUDIENCE UNDERSTAND

CHAIRMAN
Mrs. K. Yamakawa, Chief, Women's and Minors' Bureau, Labor Ministry

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF MASS UNDERSTANDING
Herbert Passin, Deputy Chief,
Public Opinion and Sociological Research Division, CIE

We are concerned here with problems of understanding as they relate to informational work. From the standpoint of social science, information is a sub-field of the general study of communications. We are, therefore, going to try to sketch for you some aspects of the psychology of communications which may have some bearing on public information work.

Communication is a process affecting the behavior, thoughts, and feelings of people by means of words, either oral or written. That is, it is generally the purpose of an information program to induce people to act or think in ways which are considered "desirable." We may wish to induce certain kinds of behavior among people in general or among a specified portion of the total population. We may wish to get taxpayers to pay taxes, or to have farmers turn in their grain quotas, or to have motorists obey traffic signals. As examples of attempts to affect the thinking of people, we may wish to make people understand the intention of certain courses of action or of a given state of affairs; we may wish to induce people who have had imperialist ideas to accept democratic ideas; we may wish to make people think of investment in bonds and securities as a form of personal insurance rather than as a gamble. In the field of feeling, we may wish to make people feel friendly toward a given country, or to feel pride in their local community, or to feel more secure about economic prospects.

The field of communications research, therefore, invloves the analysis of the following major areas:

1. Audience analysis: what are the characteristics of the target group; what is its composition; what are its psychological dispositions and characteristics; what is its distribution? In many cases, especially in mass communications, we cannot know in advance what the population will be; it is necessary to determine what audience has actually been reached. In a radio program, for example, without research into the actual composition of the listening audience, we do not know who has heard the program.

Since the characteristics of the audience to be reached have a far-reaching effect upon the success of the information intended for them,

plans in detail, even little points, in the central government offices or to make local government offices work out the detailed plans following the general principles set by the central government offices?

Answer (By Mr. O'Brien): The national government cannot compel the prefectural government to adopt any plan. The national government can only suggest broad principles for their information and guidance. If the prefectures wish to carry them out, fine, but they cannot be compelled to.

Question (By Labor Ministry): As a matter of fact, local agencies have many difficulties in carrying out information programs. For instance, local agencies find it difficult to get transportation or to borrow film projectors. In view of this, it may be better for the central government to work out detailed plans.

Answer (By Mr. O'Brien): The national government cannot compel prefectural government to act as agents in this matter. The days of the Home Ministry are gone. It may be, however, that the gentlemen refers to the following of a plan by local branches of the national government. It is quite fitting and proper for the NPA, for instance, to expect its eight branches throughout Japan to follow a plan outlined in Tokyo.

(Mr. Sullivan): I would like to expand on the answer. It might be pointed out that local government people should be given an opportunity to exercise their own ingenuity. It was said that prefectural information offices do not have adequate facilities. Yet the prefectures have many of the same advantages as the national Ministries. They have local newspapers and radio; they can produce posters and kamishibai. They should be encouraged to develop their own ideas, in line with the general principles outlined by Tokyo.

Question (By the National Personnel Authority): You stated that some publicity reaches only a limited group of people. Later, you stated that information programs were woven into school curricula. Isn't there some conflict between these two statements?

Answer (By Mr. Fujiwara): In order to reach all of the people we had to decide which appeals should be made to different groups. In this particular case it was necessary to aim certain information at the higher educational level.

Question (By Taxation Bureau): I would like to know specifically what success the housing and information program had, which media were the most effective, and which appeals were most successful.

Answer (By Mr. Fujiwara): It is difficult to give a good reply. For instance, it is difficult to say what effect the building of houses and buildings now will have on Japan ten years hence. We do know, however, that the information program I have just outlined was very well received. We have had numerous comments on the effectiveness of the various media that we used.

E. Exhibits:

1. "Housing Hereafter Exhibit" and "Non-combustible City and Housing Exhibit," both prepared by the Construction Ministry, visited major cities throughout the country.

2. We helped CIE when its "Development of American Dwellings" made a tour of the prefectures.

F. Films:

1. Production of "Construction of Heaven," the theme of which is the need for non-inflammable houses.

2. Production of "Basic Conditions of Japan's Construction" with the same theme as the above.

3. Purchase of prints of "Non-inflammable City" (produced by Damages Insurance Association), with the same theme as 1 and 2 above.

4. Use of CIE's "Design for the Future" and "Out of the Ruins".

5. Close cooperation with newsreel companies.

6. Production of four slide films.

G. Schools:

1. Arrangements were made with the Education Ministry to have the publications of our section used as material for teaching social studies courses in elementary and middle schools.

2. We provided materials for text-books, as requested by the Education Ministry.

VI Staff and Liaison Organization:

A. The Section Chief, assistant chief, and unit chiefs in charge of publications, newspapers, radio, and visual media are experts in their respective fields. In addition to the above personnel, there are: a film expert, an authority on architecture, and assistants, making a total staff of 16 persons.

B. The Staff is not adequate in number, but each person uses ingenuity and the team-work is perfect.

DISCUSSION

Question (By the Labor Ministry): In planning, is it better to map out

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CIVIL INFORMATION OFFICER IC-1269

GENERAL HEADQUARTERS
SUPREME COMMANDER FOR THE ALLIED POWERS
Civil Information and Education Section
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PRINCIPLES and TECHNIQUES of PUBLIC INFORMATION IN JAPAN

Proceedings of the
Civil Information and Education Section
Information Institute

SESSION NO. 1

GENERAL

CHAIRMAN
James P. Emerson, Rural Affairs Information Officer, CIE

WHY HAVE GOVERNMENT INFORMATION SERVICES?
Don Brown, Chief, Information Division, CIE

What we are here to talk and think about is something to which most of us are very close. If it is premature to speak of government information work as a profession, at least it is our business or occupation. We struggle with it day after day. Better than other peoples we know its problems, how hard it is to obtain funds for it, how slow the policy-makers can be in clearing what we want to make public, how easy it is to let an embarrassing typographical error slip by.

It may be helpful to stand back from the details of our work and ask ourselves why there are government information services.

In a democratic society, and that is what we assume Japan is becoming, it is essential for the government to provide information for at least four reasons:

1. It is essential so that the citizen may know what his government is doing. It supposedly is working for him. Through his representatives in the Diet--we are speaking here of the national government--he has directed or authorized it to do certain things. He is providing the money which it spends. The citizen, therefore, not only is entitled but needs to know what the government is attempting and accomplishing. Without such knowledge, he cannot try intelligently to make it responsive to his wishes. He may lose the feeling that the government belongs to him. When his support is needed for a particular program, he is likely to be found apathetic. He becomes a passive and impotent citizen of whom the power-holders can take advantage.

2. It is essential so that the citizen may know what he can expect and what is expected of him under laws and regulations.

3. It is essential so that the citizen may cooperate in and benefit from campaigns conducted by the government in his behalf, such as campaigns for prevention of disease or juvenile delinquency.

4. It is essential so that the citizen may have the advantage of useful information not obtainable from other sources, such as weather forecasts, census statistics, and the results of agricultural research.

It will be noted that these reasons all are from the standpoint of the citizen. They are linked to a basic concept of democracy; namely, that the people--not just a few of the people but all the people--are capable of intelligent decisions if they know the facts, that what they decide for themselves on the basis of facts is more likely to be right than any decision made for and imposed on them by a small group of officials.

From the standpoint of the citizen, what government information agencies do may be defined as the giving out of information for use by the people in making reasonable and effective decisions in matters of public concern. The matters of public concern may be the paying of taxes, eradication of rats, increased industrial production, equality for women, or harmony between management and labor. All such matters are affected by the attitudes and decisions of the citizen. What will his attitudes and decisions be? What elements will go into their making? Will they include all of the pertinent facts?

There also is the standpoint of the government, of the administrators of public affairs, from which to consider the utility of information services. From this standpoint, information services are essential for the very simple reason that government cannot be effective without them. One of the central problems of the public executive or administrator is how to achieve the support or cooperation of the citizen. Even when, as under a totalitarian regime, he must use coercion or deception to obtain the desired action, something must be said to the citizen. In a democracy, where coercion and deception cannot long endure, it is only through convincing facts and explanations that the citizen can be induced to work with the government and help it accomplish its purposes. Government can be consistently effective only in proportion to the adequacy of the information in the possession of the citizen.

How, then, is the citizen to be adequately informed? He or she will get much information from the classroom, from associates, and especially from newspapers, magazines, books, the radio, and motion pictures. It is fortunate for government that these information media are provided by private enterprise and that the people are willing to buy them. Whatever they do, the government information agencies need not do.

Only in Utopian literature, however, is there a democracy with newspapers, radio, and other media so exhaustive that, in addition to their other functions, they inform the citizen completely of everything he needs to know to fulfill the responsibilities of citizenship. On their own initiative and with their own resources, these media are doing a magnificent job of informing the Japanese public, despite the objections of the Communists. But they could not be doing so without the cooperation of government agencies in making information available to them. There is every reason to believe that they will do even better if more and better information comes out of the government agencies.

Thus one of the important justifications for government information agencies is that they are essential to help the press and other media in keeping the public informed. Even more important, however, is the role of these agencies in disseminating information which cannot be handled by the commercial media in sufficient volume or in sufficient detail to be effective. To cite an example, the land reform program was so complex that it required a full-scale effort to make it understood by farmers and land-owners. Though they supported the effort with all space and time they could divert from other topics, the press and radio alone were unable to achieve the understanding necessary for the success of the program. The government had to supplement the information which press and radio provided.

We have surveyed briefly the reasons for government information agencies. Certainly they are impressive enough to give us some pride in our occupation. Why, then, do we find ourselves so often on the defensive with regard to what we do? Why do we have difficulty in obtaining adequate funds?

There is, we must recognize, widespread suspicion of governmental dissemination of information, even among those who accept the principle that there cannot be effective government without an informed public. In part, this suspicion may be a heritage from the days when much information from government offices was propaganda designed to conceal and deceive. To the extent that this is true, it can be expected to ebb if government agencies lean backwards in putting out nothing which is inaccurate, biased or dubious in any way.

But most of the lack of enthusiasm for our work comes from those who fear the uses to which governmental machinery for addressing the people might be put. Their fear is not without reason. Though their virtues may be many, party men in public office and bureaucrats can be tempted to use the machinery to further their own ends.

A particularly pernicious form which this can take is the use of government information services not to present and explain facts but to tell the citizen what he should think. The office-holder or bureaucrat may be afraid of the outcome of free discussion based on facts. He would prefer to short-circuit normal formation of public opinion and to manufacture public opinion to his own liking.

It is necessary to distinguish between the right of the office-holder to express his convictions to the citizen through whatever means he may possess as an individual and his possible use of government informational facilities, paid for by the citizen, to drown out the voices of or to gain advantage over those who may disagree with him. To the extent that government information agencies allow themselves to be exploited for personal or group ambitions, they can expect to come under attack and to

have difficulties in performing their proper functions of providing information useful to the citizen.

Our goal is that of making for effective citizenship by having informed citizens. It is a goal worth our best efforts. It is a goal which it is hoped this institute will help you to achieve.

HOW GOVERNMENT INFORMATION SERVICES SHOULD OPERATE

J. F. Sullivan, Officer in Charge, Policy and Programs Branch, CIE

Based on the premise that the people of any country have a right to an honest accounting of the trust and responsibility they have placed in government, how then should government information services operate? How can a free flow of information about government activities best be achieved? As a result of this free flow, what results can be anticipated? Results in terms of citizen acceptance and subsequent assumption of their responsibilities to government?

Before going into the mechanics or operations of a government information agency, it perhaps might be wise to examine its basic character. In the first place, it must be understood that any such agency is confined to communicating policy and not making it, although it certainly is recognized that a well-informed public plays a major role in influencing legislation. The public will not be well-informed if the type of material from a particular agency is distorted or slanted to serve the selfish interests of certain pressure groups or political parties--political parties whose interpretations of freedom are based on totalitarian patterns.

The techniques necessary to achieve a free flow of information will be discussed at subsequent meetings. The importance of basic standards and objectives, however, cannot be repeated too often. Your responsibility is a grave one. A program in public administration has to be explained to the people who will be affected by it. Information or publicity people must find ways of getting information to the citizens who need to know what the program means, how they can take advantage of it, and how they should support it. This information must be factual; a complete picture must be given; the subject matter cannot be the result of wishful thinking on the part of the Ministry involved. Obviously, if these standards are not followed, your programs will be failures.

Government agencies have contact with citizens in many varied ways and every meeting between the government and the citizen is an episode in the complex flow of public relations. In order to build and maintain the delicate rapport between the citizen and government, the agency must examine its basic structure; the over-all functions of the agency must be decided; proper coordination with other bureaus and sections of the ministry must be effected; the functions of the individual personnel must be

determined; the qualifications of personnel must be established; and last but not least, progress of the agency must be evaluated at periodic intervals. Although all of these points are inter-dependent, it might not be unwise to study them, in so far as it is possible, from an individual standpoint.

You all are familiar with the basic structure, in terms of personnel, of the typical information service section. The key figures are the bureau or section chief and the media people in the fields of press, radio, visual materials, and publications. The number of additional personnel, both professional and clerical, obviously would depend upon the magnitude of the job any given ministry or agency is obligated to do. It is conceded generally, however, that in major agencies, the principal media chiefs such as press and radio should have one or more trained assistants. Larger agencies also may require subject-matter specialists who keep posted on all developments in their special field and feed ideas and facts to the various media chiefs.

The information service should be a staff office for the Ministry. Its primary purpose should be to facilitate the administration of the total program of the Ministry. Because of its importance it should enjoy bureau status in order to project effectively the objectives of the Ministry. Its principal function is not to handle publicity programs for their own sake, but to advance the substantive programs with which the Ministry is concerned.

Another function is to release information, statistical and otherwise, on trends and developments in fields of interest to the public. For example, the world food situation, vital statistics on births, deaths and disease, and housing and reconstruction statistics.

The information service should serve as a central point of clearance, coordination, and planning for the information activities arising in the individual bureaus of the Ministry and for those activities which are overall in nature and which require handling by a central office. Statements, publications, and visual items issuing from the Ministry should have clearance by the central office of information and should be issued at one central point.

Too often, particularly in relation to the press, statements are made by irresponsible officials within a given Ministry. Such statements many times are in direct conflict with the established policy of the Ministry and serve only to create confusion in the minds of the public.

This does not mean, however, that other bureaus of the Ministry have nothing to say about information or that they are subservient to the Information Bureau. On the contrary, each bureau or section should be accessible to representatives of mass communication media but any statements should be issued through the Bureau. Actually, it can be

said that the information service acts as a service agency to the other bureaus of the Ministry. In this capacity it eliminates duplication and waste, and obviates the danger of publicizing conflicting policies. It is obvious that contradictory publicity robs the people of reliable information and also damages the reputation of the Ministry.

In a modern government good coordination and the best possible output of publicity are achieved by weekly or bi-weekly meetings attended by all bureau chiefs or their designated representatives with the personnel of the Information Bureau. At those meetings long and short-range programs, involving a choice of objectives, a choice of audience, a plan of campaign, and a choice of media are discussed. Current happenings, perhaps revised ligislation, which affect programs already inaugurated of in the planning stage, are studied and strategy is decided. Differing points of view of the various bureaus are reconciled, and priorities in relation to the importance of various programs are determined.

Because the personnel of the information service are trained in the various media fields and presumably have made a study of the Ministry's problem as a whole, the style of presentation and choice of media should be left to their discretion. They should have the responsibility for developing plans for the information phases of the different programs, both on a short-term and long-range basis. The Information Bureau also should be a service organization for persons outside of the Ministry who seek information on any phase of the Ministry's work.

Although the Bureau should not be expected to have all information in detail, it should be staffed with people who are familiar with the sources of information in the entire Ministry and who can direct persons to those sources. In brief, the information service should be one central place to which people can go for information, rather than requiring them to go to many different bureaus to obtain facts. This type of service not only helps to build and maintain the rapport between the citizen and government; it also assists in making the Ministry's job an easier one in terms of citizen acceptance.

The Bureau particularly should serve the mass communication media such as the press, radio, and visual. The office should make a special effort to supply information upon request, and should call attention to the activities which it deems of public interest. Again, the results of this type of service are rewarding in terms of better relations with the press, radio, and visual fields and the consequent lessening of difficulties in having the Information Bureau's objectives publicized.

In the typical government information service, the position of Bureau Chief calls for three prime requisites: (1) He should be a good administrator and have a well-rounded knowledge of the duties and functions of all bureaus in his particular Ministry; (2) He should be well-versed in the value of information and public relations: (3) He should like people and possess the confidence of those with whom he works.

The Bureau Chief should see that every person working for him has a definite assignment and that these assignments are completed in an efficient manner. It is his job to see that various suggestions and plans emanating from other bureaus, from his own staff, and from interested outside contacts are evaluated and properly woven into a master program or plan.

He also will follow the news in order to know when any item relevant to the work of his agency appears in the news. If a Diet member, a labor leader, or an industrialist makes a speech and refers to his agency, the event has implications for that agency's publicity official. If there is criticism of his Ministry from an important source, the Bureau Chief must know at once. The Ministry may not care to reply, but the Information Chief builds his comprehensive picture of the national scene and of his agency's place in it from a continuous analysis of such developments.

Liking people is a very valuable asset for the Chief to have. His is the delicate duty of not only pacifying the feelings of other personnel in his Ministry but also he must advance valid reasons for any decisions he may make. Another bureau, for instance, might feel that its objectives or plans should take priority over all others. While this feeling and enthusiasm are laudable, it may not be to the interest of the Ministry as a whole to accede to such a demand. The Chief also must strive for harmony in his staff because he recognizes that to be successful, his agency must work as a team. More important, he must, both because of his position and because he is a public servant, strive for harmonious relations in dealing with the public.

In discussing the functions and qualifications of other members of the staff, it is equally important to remember that they, too, must have the same enthusiasm for meeting and liking people.

The staff member responsible for press relations should be a person with newspaper or magazine writing experience. He should have general knowledge of the work of the agency. For instance, if he is with the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, it is helpful if he has some knowledge of agriculture, although it is not necessary to be an agricultural technician. His most important qualification is to understand the requirements of the press and to discover and recognize the activities of his Ministry which have a public interest and should be publicized. He should be cooperative so that he can work well with specialists in the bureaus and the people who come from the press seeking information.

The staff member responsible for radio relations should be a person who has had experience in the radio field, either in Tokyo or in some of the branch stations of BCJ. It is less important that he be a skilled radio writer than that he recognize in the work of the Ministry the type of information which is of public interest and which is adaptable to radio presentation. He must aid radio stations in obtaining and presenting such information.

The person in charge of visual publicity should have worked in the fields of visual production, distribution, or education. He should know the value of visual materials in information programs. He need not be a skilled technician, but he should have a rudimentary knowledge of the various visual media. He should be able to devise and develop plans utilizing visual media to the best advantage in terms of cost. He should help non-governmental organizations which want to produce visual materials which support his Ministry's program. He should be aware of the advantages, under given conditions, of such media as motion pictures, slides, film strips, charts, and posters.

The person in charge of publications should know how to plan and produce printed materials ranging from pamphlets to books. He also should be cooperative and be able to work with other bureaus in helping them to plan, produce, and distribute publications. He should be responsible for seeing that the publications from one bureau do not conflict in policy or in fact with those of other bureaus.

The need for continual evaluation of the information service's work cannot be stressed too heavily. Many legislative reforms in the political, economic, and social fields have been enacted since 1945. It is one thing to adopt legislation and another thing to establish connection with the individuals who need to know about this legislation. An agency may issue countless publications, posters and kami shibai, it may project its plans several times a week over the radio, and it may obtain good newspaper and magazine coverage. But is the information reaching the audience for whom it was intended? If it does reach the audience, does it have the desired impact? Is the Kanji understood by the audience?

It is admittedly difficult to obtain exact answers to all of these questions, but these are methods other than the public opinion poll. The job will not be accomplished, however, by attempting to gauge citiaen acceptance from an office in Tokyo. Periodic tours into the prefectures is one way. What does the farmer, the fisherman, the housewife, or the laborer, think of a particular law or project that your agency has been publicizing? Which type of medium that you have used in projecting the information program has impressed them most? Has the knowledge you have imparted helped them in their daily lives, either politically, socially, or economically? This procedure brings at least three results: it checks the progress of your agency from a planning and utilization of media standpoint; the information obtained may be helpful in revising or expanding your program and it evaluates citizen acceptance.

Information services should encourage citizens to forward written inquiries and comment relating to the work of the Ministry. Letters from the people are invaluable in measuring citizen acceptance. Inquiries or comment may be directed at specific objectives of individual bureaus. Where problems of information are involved, it is essential that they be discussed with the bureau concerned. If replies are given they should be courteous, to the point, and written in the language of the layman.

The contents of the reply to one inquiry may be circulated by the recipient to five or six neighbors, perhaps through an entire village. In forwarding replies, the Information Bureau has an opportunity to enclose printed materials concerning not only the subject matter under discussion but related topics. This material also may be circulated by the recipient. In time, a selected list of names of interested citizens can be compiled for use in promoting future campaigns.

No doubt some of you contend that the duties, functions, and goals outlined here are on the lofty side; that conditions in present-day Japan preclude obtaining personnel who are well-versed in disseminating information, and that the general public looks with suspicion on any publicity emanating from the government. It is not my intent to minimize these problems. Rather, it is the purpose of this Institution to point the way to achieve those goals. But unless you recognize the fundamental ideals of government information services, the techniques involved will be only superficial. A comparison might be made with a physician, who technically might achieve perfection, but who basically has no respect for and understanding of human needs.

The quality of government information personnel is improving every day. It should be remembered that most of these people had little technical background when they started. They did, however, recognize a challenge and had the necessary enthusiasm and fresh ideas to meet this challenge.

It is recognized that winning the confidence of the public is a long-range objective. Again, this goal is not confined to Japan. In every country or at least in countries which have freedom of speech--citizens are traditionally suspicious of any effort by a public body to advertise itself. The role of information or publicity in public administration remains to be defined clearly in public practice. Perhaps it is more of a problem in Japan, where in the recent past, information has been centrally controlled and projected on a distorted basis. This must be recognized as a grave problem. But, again, it is not insurmountable. It can be achieved by being truthful and patient, and thus convincing the public that the Government is not a separate entity but exists to represent and enforce the wishes of the majority of the people. The job is not an easy one but it is worthwhile. It can play a major role in helping to make Japan politically, economically, and socially stable.

DISCUSSION

Question (by Tobacco Monopoly Bureau): Do you have confidence in your knowledge of Japanese customs, psychology and the difference between the United States and Japan?

Answer (by Mr. Sullivan): We definitely are not experts in psychology. I wish we were. I might say that it is not the purpose of this institute to press any detailed concept of American information services upon Japan. An American information service might be used as a pattern but

should be adapted to Japanese conditions.

Question (By the Tobacco Monopoly Bureau): I come across the terms "information" and "campaign". Specifically what do you mean by "information" and "campaign?"

Answer (By Mr. Sullivan): An information campaign would be a plan of action after studying a problem. For instance, quite a large amount of taxes comes from tobacco sales. In order to stimulate tobacco sales, the Information Bureau of the Tobacco Monopoly should study the problem carefully and map out a plan listing all necessary means to encourage people to buy tobacco. We would call that an information campaign or program. A feature of long-range campaigns is active and repetitious promotion of the same idea.

Question (By Labor Ministry): How can we evaluate an information campaign?

Answer (By Mr. Sullivan): There are several ways. I think the establishement of a central desk in the information service to answer inquiries and receive comments that come from people will help. Public opinion polls and other methods will be discussed later.

Question (By the Tobacco Monopoly Bureau): Does your government have publicity or information bureaus?

Answer (By Mr. Sullivan): Every agency, such as the Treasury Department and Department of Agriculture, has its own information service. These services are independent of each other.

Question (By SCLC): My office has two different functions. One is the liquidation of securities and the other general democratization of industry. The information section is mainly occupied with the liquidation program. I think it is necessary to have a different agency to handle general industrial democratization education. What is your opinion?

Answer (By Mr. Dekle): Basically, I cannot see a great conflict in the two objectives. In the United States all of the large security companies are emphasizing the importance of a great many people owning shares. Industrial democratization is essentially the same program and I think these two can be carried on at the same time. This is largely an internal matter and something the Japanese Government should work out.

SESSION NO. 2

PLANNING

CHAIRMAN

Y. Shigemi, Procurator-General's Office

THE IMPORTANCE OF PLANNING

J. R. O'Brien, Political Affairs Information Officer, CIE

The importance of planning information programs has assumed even greater significance since the passage of the budget by the last Diet. Information budgets were severely curtailed because of the emphasis upon economic recovery. Thus all information sections within the government found themselves confronted with a new and difficult problem: how to carry on their necessary activities within the framework of budgets which had been reduced as much as 80 per cent.

There is no disagreement over the importance of planning an information program. Planning is required as we go about our daily routines; it is required in preparing for our education; to insure that we will have adequate funds when we are no longer able to work. We take all of these things for granted. The question presents itself: generally speaking are information programs in Japan carefully planned? I am afraid that the answer is no. There have been too many instances in which information programs have been based on the shot gun theory--the theory that if a great many pellets are fired, a few will find their marks. This type of planning, although always extremely wasteful, was easier to justify in the past when information sections had large budgets, but in these days of austerity, there can be no justification for such waste of public funds.

It might be easier for me to point out the need for intelligent planning if I compared an information program with a subject in which both Americans and Japanese are greatly interested. That subject is baseball. The best baseball teams in America and Japan do not just "happen." They are the result of planning, mainly before the playing season begins. During this period, a good manager carefully drills his players on the weaknesses and strong points of opposing teams; he discusses the batting peculiarities of his opponents; he analyses their pitching styles, and the many other qualities that contribute to a good team. Equally important, he studies the qualities of his own team and tries to improve its weak points.

This pre-season period might be compared with the research and study which should precede the beginning of an information program. An information chief might be compared with a baseball manager. He should determine what his goal is; what group or groups of people he wishes to influence with his message; he should analyze his own organization's weaknesses and strong points. He asks: has he prepared his staff for the program? How much money can he afford to spend? How much ground has been covered by previous programs? Will the program conflict with the year-end holidays, national elections, or other distractions? All of these considerations affect the effectiveness of an information campaign.

In discussing the planning of a program with information chiefs, we frequently find that detailed plans have been made just for Tokyo and other large cities. An information program of national scope cannot be limited to the large cities. The information chief must bear in mind that these programs must reach citizens from Kagoshima to Hokkaido. In

fact, it is advisable to devote primary attention in most national programs to the need of rural areas, for citizens in these areas have less access to information than do people in the large cities. Once this study and research have been completed, the information chief will be in a position to "begin the season."

It is appropriate at this point to metnion that a successful baseball manager does not arrive at these decisions by himself. He has several coaches who help him to plan. It is unthinkable that he would do otherwise. Similarly, it is unthinkable that an information chief would plan an information program without taking into consideration the experience and special talents of his assistants, the technical knowledge of other people in his Ministry who are concerned with the program, and non-governmental agencies. It frequently is highly advisable for government information sections to obtain advice and background information from labor and management groups, co-operatives, women's organizations, bar associations, newspaper editors, and civic organizations.

I would like to refer again to our mutual interest in baseball. In establishing the line-up, a good manager tries to achieve balance. For instance, he places at the head of the batting order a player who may not be a heavy hitter but who usually is able to get on base and is a fast runner. Farther down the line up he places a heavy hitter or slugger who has the ability to bring home the man who gets on base. This strategy might be compared with the utilization of various media by an information section. It should be determined which media lend themselves to particular situations and to circumstances existing at a particular time during an information program. This illustration is simple and fundamental, but is one that is frequently overlooked.

Even the best baseball managers sometimes find that, despite very thorough planning, unforeseen circumstances arise which require a change in strategy. Those of you who follow American baseball closely will remember that a few seasons ago Cleveland found itself unable to erect a defense against Ted Williams, a heavy hitter with the Boston Red Sox. The Cleveland manager decided to switch his entire infield and outfield to the right every time that Williams came to bat. The Cleveland strategy worked and Williams' heavy hitting was checked. You can see the comparison between this situation and what can happen during an information program. After the program has begun, you may find, that one or more of the media you are relying upon do not seem to be effective. A smart information chief will change his strategy. Information programs should be sufficiently flexible to permit changes in the interests of effectiveness. Because of budget limitations it is not always possible at the present time to use media which experience has shown to be the most effective under certain circumstances. For instance, it no longer is always possible to print several hundred thousand posters or pamphlets. Nor is it appropriate in these days of austerity to pay the expenses of government officials or prominent professors for lecture

tours. It would be apparent therefore, that there is an increasing need for using what may be called "free media." By "free media", I mean the news columns of newspapers, radio, meetings, prefectural visual aid centers, and organizations.

As I mentioned earlier, planning is required in almost every field of human activity. You who are in charge of disseminating information to the Japanese people have an obligation to apply sound and intelligent planning principles to information programs.

DEVELOPING AN INFORMATION PLAN

Setsuo Fujiwara, Chief, Information Section Construction Ministry
Mr. Fujiwara outlined a typical information program.
This one was on housing.

I. Basis of Program

A. Purposes:

1. Expediting construction.

2. Improving housing standards.

3. Efficient use of existing houses, buildings being used for purposes other than dwelling, and materials for construction.

4. Establishing good residential districts.

B. Themes:

1. Expedite house construction by the Government and individuals.

2. Share roomy houses with the homeless.

3. Rationalize and modernize house designing and mode of living.

4. Emphasize housing sanitation and attractive surroundings.

5. Explain laws and regulations for building restriction to eliminate blackmarket building.

6. Encourage construction of fire-proof and quake-proof houses.

7. Promote modern city planning, especially community spirit.

C. Appeals:

1. The housing problem is at the root of many social problems.

2. Supplying workers with dwellings is essential to economic rehabilitation.

3. The spirit of the community as an extension of home life is the basis of democracy.

II. To Whom Information is Directed:

1. We decided that the whole nation would have to be educated to

consider this as a social problem.

2. In regard to the use of publications, we were obliged to limit these to a selected group of persons, mainly because of budget limitations. Prefectural and municipal government officials, members of local assemblies, officers of public and private groups, school teachers, library officials, and others in leading, positions were included in this group.

lll Media:

Radio, newspapers, publications meetings, exhibits, and films. Special emphasis was put on exhibits because of their effectiveness in explaining the housing problem.

lV The Program:

A tentative program for the year was mapped out. In drawing up the plan, the various sub-sections studied how to obtain the best results with the smallest expenditure, and formed concrete plans which were submitted to the Chief of the Section. He decided what would be carried out during the fiscal year after all the sub-sections had met for consultation.

Prior to this a provisional information plan had been outlined at the time of budget estimation. However, a substantial reduction in the requested budget and a change of objectives caused by more than half a year's lapse of time forced us to review this plan.

Then we made monthly plans based on the long-range program. In the warm seasons people are naturally less interested in the housing problem than when it gets cold. In view of this fact, during the warm seasons, we concentrated on explaining laws and ordinances. During the cold months the program was broader.

In executing the program, however, some unforeseen problems forced us to change the program by adding new work which had not been in the original plan. One of these was the earthquake-fire in the **Fukui** area, and the second was the arrival of information materials on housing and city planning from the U.S., through CIE.

Immediately after the disaster at Fukui, we obtained a report of the damage, and publicized the Government's steps for reconstruction and for prevention of similar disasters in the future.

As for the use of the CIE materials, it was decided that institutes and exhibits would be held throughout the country un-

der the Construction Ministry's sponsorship. However, this did not prevent us from carrying out the original plan.

V. Use of Media:

A. Radio

1. Several programs were broadcast. Close contact was kept with NHK's Planning Division.

2. Materials for local broadcasts were supplied through prefectural officials.

B. Press:

1. Conferences were held with the Construction Ministry Reporters' Club. Press releases were issued.

2. Articles were prepared and supplied to newspapers and magazines.

3. Suggestions were made to have the housing problem discussed in editorials.

C. Publications:

1. Construction Monthly: 13,000 copies.

2. New City (monthly): 3,000 copies.

3. Construction Series: 4 kinds, each 13,000 copies.

4. Foreign Series: 2 kinds, each 13,000 copies.

5. Other separate volumes: 5 kinds, each 13,000 copies.

6. Leaflets: 3 kinds, each 30,000 copies.

D. Public Meetings:

1. A "Housing and City Planning Institute" was held in Sendai, Tokyo, Fukuoka, and Kyoto. We visited the major cities, talked with prefectural and municipal officials members of local assemblies, and representatives of private groups to advise them on the formation of citizens' committees and on other housing and city planning problems.

3. We conferred with chiefs of prefectural and municipal Information Sections to obtain their cooperation.

E. Exhibits:

1. "Housing Hereafter Exhibit" and "Non-combustible City and Housing Exhibit," both prepared by the Construction Ministry, visited major cities throughout the country.

2. We helped CIE when its "Development of American Dwellings" made a tour of the prefectures.

F. Films:

1. Production of "Construction of Heaven," the theme of which is the need for non-inflammable houses.

2. Production of "Basic Conditions of Japan's Construction" with the same theme as the above.

3. Purchase of prints of "Non-inflammable City" (produced by Damages Insurance Association), with the same theme as 1 and 2 above.

4. Use of CIE's "Design for the Future" and "Out of the Ruins".

5. Close cooperation with newsreel companies.

6. Production of four slide films.

G. Schools:

1. Arrangements were made with the Education Ministry to have the publications of our section used as material for teaching social studies courses in elementary and middle schools.

2. We provided materials for text-books, as requested by the Education Ministry.

VI Staff and Liaison Organization:

A. The Section Chief, assistant chief, and unit chiefs in charge of publications, newspapers, radio, and visual media are experts in their respective fields. In addition to the above personnel, there are: a film expert, an authority on architecture, and assistants, making a total staff of 16 persons.

B. The Staff is not adequate in number, but each person uses ingenuity and the team-work is perfect.

DISCUSSION

Question (By the Labor Ministry): In planning, is it better to map out

plans in detail, even little points, in the central government offices or to make local government offices work out the detailed plans following the general principles set by the central government offices?

Answer (By Mr. O'Brien): The national government cannot compel the prefectural government to adopt any plan. The national government can only suggest broad principles for their information and guidance. If the prefectures wish to carry them out, fine, but they cannot be compelled to.

Question (By Labor Ministry): As a matter of fact, local agencies have many difficulties in carrying out information programs. For instance, local agencies find it difficult to get transportation or to borrow film projectors. In view of this, it may be better for the central government to work out detailed plans.

Answer (By Mr. O'Brien): The national government cannot compel prefectural government to act as agents in this matter. The days of the Home Ministry are gone. It may be, however, that the gentlemen refers to the following of a plan by local branches of the national government. It is quite fitting and proper for the NPA, for instance, to expect its eight branches throughout Japan to follow a plan outlined in Tokyo.

(Mr. Sullivan): I would like to expand on the answer. It might be pointed out that local government people should be given an opportunity to exercise their own ingenuity. It was said that prefectural information offices do not have adequate facilities. Yet the prefectures have many of the same advantages as the national Ministries. They have local newspapers and radio; they can produce posters and kamishibai. They should be encouraged to develop their own ideas, in line with the general principles outlined by Tokyo.

Question (By the National Personnel Authority): You stated that some publicity reaches only a limited group of people. Later, you stated that information programs were woven into school curricula. Isn't there some conflict between these two statements?

Answer (By Mr. Fujiwara): In order to reach all of the people we had to decide which appeals should be made to different groups. In this particular case it was necessary to aim certain information at the higher educational level.

Question (By Taxation Bureau): I would like to know specifically what success the housing and information program had, which media were the most effective, and which appeals were most successful.

Answer (By Mr. Fujiwara): It is difficult to give a good reply. For instance, it is difficult to say what effect the building of houses and buildings now will have on Japan ten years hence. We do know, however, that the information program I have just outlined was very well received. We have had numerous comments on the effectiveness of the various media that we used.

SESSION NO. 3

MAKING YOUR AUDIENCE UNDERSTAND

CHAIRMAN
Mrs. K. Yamakawa, Chief, Women's and Minors' Bureau, Labor Ministry

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF MASS UNDERSTANDING
Herbert Passin, Deputy Chief,
Public Opinion and Sociological Research Division, CIE

We are concerned here with problems of understanding as they relate to informational work. From the standpoint of social science, information is a sub-field of the general study of communications. We are, therefore, going to try to sketch for you some aspects of the psychology of communications which may have some bearing on public information work.

Communication is a process affecting the behavior, thoughts, and feelings of people by means of words, either oral or written. That is, it is generally the purpose of an information program to induce people to act or think in ways which are considered "desirable." We may wish to induce certain kinds of behavior among people in general or among a specified portion of the total population. We may wish to get taxpayers to pay taxes, or to have farmers turn in their grain quotas, or to have motorists obey traffic signals. As examples of attempts to affect the thinking of people, we may wish to make people understand the intention of certain courses of action or of a given state of affairs; we may wish to induce people who have had imperialist ideas to accept democratic ideas; we may wish to make people think of investment in bonds and securities as a form of personal insurance rather than as a gamble. In the field of feeling, we may wish to make people feel friendly toward a given country, or to feel pride in their local community, or to feel more secure about economic prospects.

The field of communications research, therefore, invloves the analysis of the following major areas:

1. Audience analysis: what are the characteristics of the target group; what is its composition; what are its psychological dispositions and characteristics; what is its distribution? In many cases, especially in mass communications, we cannot know in advance what the population will be; it is necessary to determine what audience has actually been reached. In a radio program, for example, without research into the actual composition of the listening audience, we do not know who has heard the program.

Since the characteristics of the audience to be reached have a far-reaching effect upon the success of the information intended for them,

FOREWARD

In a democracy, the people need to be fully informed about the activities of their government; they also have a right to be informed. This information comes from three main sources — the press (which may be said to include newspapers, radio, magazines, books, motion pictures, etc), citizen groups, and the government. It is the latter's role as a disseminator of information with which this book is concerned.

With the development of the means of mass communication, the dissemination of information in the modern democratic state has become a science requiring the same high standards of training and skill as those of other professions. The modern information specialist is a combination educator, salesman, and promotor; his function is to inform people by effectively using the various meanings of conveying information. This is a new concept in Japan where, prior to 1945, the dominant theory was that government should control, not disseminate, information. In other words, it was the policy to censor, not inform; the prevailing attitude was negative, not positive.

Since 1945 various agencies of the national and local government have established information departments designed to assist private information outlets in telling the Japanese people about their government. Because the idea and practice of a free flow of information from government to citizen was new in Japan, these departments faced many difficulties. To help national government information departments solve their problems, the Policy and Programs Branch, Information Division, Civil Information and Education Section, GHQ, SCAP, conducted an Information Training Institute consisting of 13 sessions held in Radio Tokyo between 12 July and 4 October 1949. The announced purpose of the Institute was:

> "To advise the chiefs and specialists of Japanese central government information agencies in better techniques relating to the use of media, the preparation and distribution of materials, the practice of public relations, and liaison with prefecture agencies."

In addition to government information workers, invitations were extended to representatives of leading Tokyo advertising agencies to stimulate thinking beyond the sphere of government in public information techniques and principles. Attendance at the Institute varies from 130 to 180 persons at each session.

All the speakers were selected for their knowledge of specialized fields of public information. Lengthy periods of time were allowed for

open discussion at each meeting.

The statements by the speakers and the discussions represent the first comprehensive presentation of public information principles and techniques in Japan. They have been edited and collected in this volume to form a permanent record for Japanese information specialists, in and out of government. This book also will be valuable to journalism students and others who are preparing themselves to enter the information field.

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audience analysis has come to be a major field of research. The problems of audience analysis are, however, far from simple. The very simplest problem in audience analysis -- the number of people reached by a given piece of information -- involves very intricate research. For example, we insert information on insect control in a magazine or newspaper. How do we determine the readership of that item? Total circulation figures are obviously not sufficient because not all people will read the item. Furthermore, some will read it in detail, others only sketchily. Some will read it with understanding and interest, and others only casually. On the other hand, the magazine may be read by many more people than the original purchasers. Or to take another example: two magazines may have exactly the same circulation. But does this mean that their readership is the same? No, because magazine "A" may be passed around many people, while magazine "B" is read only by the immediate purchasers. Furthermore once we have been able to characterize the readership composition of a given magazine or newspaper for a given issue, we find that the readership composition of the next issue may change in many ways. The same considerations hold for any of the mass media; the audiences are hard to determine and their composition is ever-shifting.

2. The second major problem in communications research is the analysis of content, of what is being said and of how it is said. This is one of the most important fields of communication research, one which has been extensively cultivated in the United States, but which is only starting in Japan. By content analysis, we may determine the thematic content of communications, and the relative emphasis given different contents; we may determine the nature of the symbols used in the presentation of the information; we may examine the contents to try to determine why they had the effects they had. We may find that the opposite effects to those intended are achieved. For example, in the United States, an information program exposing quacks in the field of X-rays seemed to bring about a refusal on the part of many people to be X-rayed by qualified doctors. A content analysis revealed that the informational program had given so much emphasis to the dangers of X-radiation than many people came to the conclusion that all X-raying was dangerous.

3. Finally, we are concerned with the effects of communications. The information specialist, having planned his program and executed it to the best of his ability, wishes to find out whether it has brought about the intended effect or not. Here, a great variety of research techniques have been brought to a fairly high degree of development.

It is important to make clear that we are very far from having a body of exact rules which can be applied simply to all information problems. A great deal of work remains to be done both in communications research itself and in psychological research in basic human characteristics and in the psychology of the learning process.

Professor Carl Hovland of Yale University has suggested that since communication is essentially a learning process, stimulas, response, mo-

tivation, and reward are very important. He has argued that certain laws such as extinction, generalization, discrimination reinforcement, and repetition are applicable to communication. The example of "repetition" may be briefly considered. Learning theory has established the importance of repetition; the repetition of the stimulus-response relationship results in strengthening of the response. But this strengthening effect will only be achieved if proper conditions of motivation and reward exist. If they do not, the response will be extinguished. Thus, for example, advertising slogans for cigarets which constantly repeat the same theme or statement may be effective if satisfaction results, but people stop paying attention and may even stop buying the cigarets if there is not proper satisfaction from the smoking.

Perhaps the most fruitful application of psychological theory to information practice has to do with the analysis of individual and group variations in response. Common sense as well as psychological theory tell us that what is effective for one group may not be effective for another group. Consequently, the more we know of the characteristics of a group, the better we can plan an effective informational policy. An audience of university graduates who have lived in foreign countries will be very different from an audience of farmers who have never been out of Japan. The background and experiences of the groups differ as do their needs, motivations, aspirations, and the things that must be satisfied for them.

Because of these differences, there are differences in the appropriate reward structures. For example, a group which is thoroughly familiar with the nature, intent, and content of the 9-point stabilization program is likely to be satisfied with the explanation that the purpose of the 9-point program is to "balance the budget." But a group which does not understand the complexities of modern finance and economics requires an explanation in terms of vital daily needs, such as lower prices for goods and making goods more abundant.

An important aspect of the variation of groups is motivation. The more highly motivated a group, that is, the more it feels a stake in a given issue, the more receptive it will be. In many cases, it is necessary to arouse this motivation before making concrete proposals. For example, for a highly motivated group, it may be sufficient to say "Pay your taxes by such and such a date," but for less motivated groups, it may be necessary to arouse motivation by explaining the need for taxes, the part that taxes play in improving their life, and the critical situation of Japan. Once that motivation has been aroused, a statement about when to pay taxes will be more effective. It is important in all informational programs to take into consideration the vital needs and motivations of the groups being appealed to.

Of course, mass communication cannot be sensitive to every shade of difference between individual groups. Logically, the extreme of this position would be individual contact and an informational statement tail-

ored to meet the needs of every single member of the population being approached. This is manifestly impossible, but if this is regarded as a limit, then the great variety of approaches and methods, the appeals to the significant types of motivations, should be kept in mind. No single informational item or form can appeal equally to all groups within the population. In some cases, certain forms can have maximum appeal. For example, if the level of reading and comprehension ability of the people as a whole can be determined, a level which embraces any specified proportion of the population can be deliberately adopted. In studies in the United States, it has been found that a seventh grade level of reading ability and sentence and word-structure, will reach the overwhelming majority of the adult population. In other cases, a deliberate approach to the best-educated element of the population will serve the needs of the information program. The importance of varying the appeal to the needs and level of the audience cannot be over-emphasized.

While individual appeal to each person in the relevant population may not be feasible, there are many issues on which the goal can be approached by house-to-house canvassing, personal visits, and meetings with small groups.

In the variation of appeals in accordance with variation of personal or group circumstances, there are several factors:

1. The medium of the appeal. Not all groups are available through the same media. An appeal through general magazines will reach fewer people than an appeal through daily newspapers; an appeal through radio will reach fewer people than an appeal through the combined circulation of daily newspaper. In Japan, over 90 percent of the people subscribe to newspapers, but only 48 percent own radios. Similarly, according to BCJ, while 57 percent of all urban families own radios, 43 percent of rural families own radios. Even these figures are subject to great geographic variations.

2. The timing of the appeal. In the case of radio appeals, the availability of the concerned audience must be considered. An appeal at seven in the morning will reach an entirely different audience from one at eleven in the morning. Similarly, in the month of June in most parts of Japan, it will be harder to reach farmers, who are busy with rice-transplantation and harvesting of wheat, than in August.

3. The nature of needs and aspirations respecting the specific problem. An appeal that is appropriate for workers in big cities may not be appropriate for farmers with entirely different problems.

4. Vast individual differences in motivation and readiness to respond. The more knowledge that we have of these personal variations, the more widely can we make our appeal to meet these problems.

5. Vast differences in knowledge of the issue. When people do not have knowledge of the issue with which the information program is con-

cerned, they cannot form reliable judgments. It is manifestly useless to ask people to buy securities and bonds when, as a recent Jini survey showed, 89 percent of the people do not know what the securities democratization program is. Before a campaign to induce people to buy securities can be successful, it will be necessary to inform people about the facts of the securities democratization program. However, it should be noted that in the Jiji survey, 33 percent of the people who had had higher school education knew of the securities democratization program, while only seven percent of the people with only primary school education knew of it. This fact illustrates not only the variation between groups in respect to knowledge, but also shows the close relationship between motivation and interest on the one hand, and information on the other. People with less money for stocks and bonds will pay less attention to information programs on stocks and bonds. If we generalize this finding, we can see that people often perceive only such information as has bearing on their daily lives. Since people with primary schooling tend to be poorer than the rest of the population, stocks and bonds are less meaningful to them than they are to people with higher education and higher income.

The persuasion of people through words, written or oral, requires careful understanding of the factors which affect individual and group response. Language occupies a very important role in this process. The kind of language used will have a considerable effect upon the reception of the communication. Language above the level of the audience being reached, whether oral or written, will not be effective. In some cases, resentment may be aroused. Similarly, at times, language below the level of the audience may be insulting and ineffective. Also, the source of the statement is very important. The impression created by the speaker, whether he is seen or heard on the radio or quoted in writing, will have a profound effect upon the response. Thus, for example, a statement saying that sacrifices are needed for the economic reconstruction of Japan will be received with better grace from a trusted leader of a union than from the head of a large enterprise.

The importance of speaking the language of the people cannot be overemphasized. A speaker with a market dialectical variant may be less effective in a given area than one with the "right" dialect. In some cases, there may be actual difficulty in understanding. Thus a speaker from Kagoshima might be very difficult for a farmer in Aomori Prefecture to understand.

The question of the understandability of words involves two central points: the use of words and language which are familiar to the audience concerned; and the use of words whose meanings have the shading desired for the communication. Therefore, the sense and feeling of words for different kinds of audiences is very important. To take a simple example the concept of "government workers" can be referred to by at least two diametrically opposed terms. On the one hand, the same group of people

may be referred to as "bureaucrats" and on the other hand, as "servants of the people." While we are talking about exactly the same people, the choice of term will have a considerable effect upon the reaction of the group to whom the appeal is intended. When a bad meaning is intended, the term "bureaucrat" will be effective; when a good meaning is intended, we use the term "servant of the people." Thus we may speak of the program of "kubikiri" or we may speak of the program of "temporary displacements incident to the reconstruction of the economy." In the first case, we shall arouse opposition and anxiety, in the other we shall alleviate anxiety by the assurance that the "displacements" are temporary and in the long-run interests of the people. I am not concerned here with the truth of the alternative statements, but only with a demonstration of the necessity of making the selection of words correspond to the interest of the communications.

The social psychologists, Krech and Crutchfield, have formulated a series of propositions concerning persuasion through words that should be given serious consideration by all persons engaged in information work.

1. "A suggestion that seems to meet an existing need will be more readily accepted than one that does not meet a need."

Information which demonstrates a relationship between the needs of individuals and groups and the particular course of action urged will be more effective than information which fails to do so. The 9-point program will be more acceptable to people who feel that it is meeting important problems in their daily life than it will be to people who feel that it is concerned with such abstractions as a "balanced budget." In some cases, it is the task of the information program to arouse the sense of need. Many people do not understand why severe taxation is necessary. It is necessary to arouse an understanding of this need and make people feel that an information program or particular policy meets this need. It will often be found that people have little or no accurate knowledge concerning important public issues. Before any information program can appeal to them successfully, it is necessary to create a sense of need by educating the public.

2. "A suggestion concerning an ambiguous situation will be more readily accepted than one concerning a clearly structured situation."

When people are unclear about a situation, they will be accessible to plausible explanations. In fact, they will be searching in one way or another for satisfactory explanations and answers. Therefore, a good information policy will try to have answers ready to meet situations about which people are uncertain in a way that is favorable to the program purposes of the information policy. If this is not done, competing groups will offer interpretations, and the first interpretation will have a good chance of success. This suggests that information people should be constantly on the alert to anticipate problems, should be sensitive to situations which require explanations, and should regard the determination of the information needs of the people as one of their most important tasks.

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As a concrete example, if workers are worried about unemployment, it is good information policy to try to clarify the situation for them before rumors get out of hand, and to provide them with sufficient information for relieving anxiety. If this is not done in time, other programs may succeed in convincing them of an unwise course of action.

3. "A suggestion that fits in with other systems of beliefs and frames of reference will be more readily accepted than one that does not."

If information is presented in a familiar context, in relation to concepts which are acceptable to the audience, there will be a greater readiness to accept. For example, relating a bond selling campaign to people's more familiar ideas of saving money or, investing for their children will make it more acceptable than to ask them to engage in a completely new and somewhat risky enterprise, with which they have no experience.

4. "A suggestion that can readily induce new attributes in the perception of a familiar object will be more readily accepted than one that does not have that advantage."

If people can see a given program in terms of ideas which are acceptable to them, they will tend to respond. For example, information that deals only with "mass firings" will be less appealing than information that can make people re-interpret the governmental reorganization in such positive terms as "reducing the tax burden," "increasing efficiency," "cutting the cost of governmental services," and "reducing bureaucracy."

5. "A suggestion that can be phrased so as to be congruent with the need of people to identify with or be in harmony with other people will be more readily accepted than one that does not draw upon such social support."

Sources which are regarded by people as prestigeful and authoritative will be more successful transmitters of information and ideas than sources that do not receive popular respect. This refers to the individual himself, or to the type of person. Thus a sumo wrestler would probably not command public confidence in his judgment of the necessity of a balanced budget. However, it is important to remember that different groups vary in their judgements of authority. Workers will probably pay less attention to the Tokyo Chamber of Commerce than will business groups. It is very worthwhile for the information specialist to try to secure appropriate auspices suitable for each of the groups to which he has to appeal.

TESTING METHODS TO IMPROVE UNDERSTANDABILITY

By Kazuya Matsumiya
Public Opinion and Sociological Research Division, CIE

Three analyses are most important in carrying out mass communica-

tion; first, audience analysis which requires close study of the people who read newspapers, magazines, pamphlets, or other documents, attend lecture meetings, go to movie houses or listen to the radio; second, content analysis, which requires careful analysis of the contents of media supplied to the public; and, third to study thoroughly what influence or effect these communications have exercised on the audience.

I should like to explain concrete methods for analyzing and studying mass communication from the viewpoint of social psychology.

In my opinion, the foremost question in mass communication is to make the other party understand. The ultimate object is to get others to sympathize and agree with one's own ends and, to take a step further, to induce them to do one's bidding. For instance, it is for the purpose of making the public understand the significance of tax payments and of inducing them to pay their share of taxes that the government distributes pamphlets, displays posters, and holds meetings, and explains the taxation problem over the radio. Or a political party may present its platform to the public through its organ papers, with the aim of obtaining as many supporters as possible.

In the United States, radio is financed by commercial advertisements. First, the radio attracts the attention of listeners by entertaining them and then it broadcasts commercial advertisements. Thus, radio attracts as many listeners as possible by arousing their interest, and then it gets across its message.

In mass communication, it is important to make the other party understand what we say. And it is important that others take what we say in the way we mean them to. Yet in some cases what we say cannot be understood because of unintelligible composition, a too technical explanation, or for similar reasons. Therefore, the person who has read it cannot put into practice what we want him to.

"Consent through understanding" is important. Social actions, especially in a democracy, should not be blind and submissive actions by the masses, but should be responsible actions by individuals after defining the meanings of their actions. This makes it important for people to investigate and understand the character and content of information from sources that may be unknown to the recipient.

The method of appealing to feeling is naturally important also in mass communication. It is important that the problems of intelligence and emotion in mass communication by distinctly separated as they are equal in importance. For instance, in advertising a commodity for sale, it is important to appeal to the public's emotions to attract attention. That is why bright colors and sound are used to make appeals. But it is useless for an advertisement to end inconclusively. The commodity must be bought. Some will buy it because it has visual appeal or because they saw the advertisement in a major newspaper. But if the quality is infer-

ior, the purchaser will not buy the article again. On the other hand, a commodity will have a longer life on the market if the public has proof of its excellence or efficiency. For example, when a toilet cream, lipstick or rouge is offered for sale by a department store, a sales girl often shows the commodity to passing customers, letting them smell it or try it on their faces. She induces the customers to the action of buying after actual experience and complete understanding of the commodity.

It is important to analyze the attitude of the person who receives information. It must be taken into consideration that in mass communication the receiving audience is different in nature from the audience in formal education, i.e., students. The former depends upon the willingness of the audience to receive information. In other words, it has freedom of selection in reading an advertisement or listening to the radio. These principles are the same for the dissemination of information by the government or the advertisement of commodities.

The first point in audience analysis is to establish to what degree the audience has an opportunity to accept communication. For instance, the effects of radio broadcasts depend upon the number of actual listeners. So it must be investigated how many families have radio receivers, and how they are distributed locally. It also must be determined what hours are most convenient for listeners. The Broadcasting Corporation of Japan conducted such an investigation in October 1948 throughout the nation. It was found that 40 percent of nation-wide listeners mentioned 6:00-6:30 in the morning as most convenient, and during the afternoon, 35 percent found 12:00-12:30 most convenient. In the night, 7:30-8:00 was favored by 80 percent.

Another example is the subscription lists of newspapers. In present-day Japan, the population, when it is figured on a basis of 52 million persons above the age of fifteen who are generally regarded as newspaper readers, averages 0.35 newspaper per capita or one for every three adults. Osaka Prefecture occupies the topmost position, its rate being 0.37 per person, while Kagoshima Prefecture has the lowest rate where one newspaper must serve theoretically five persons. Towns have a larger percentage of newspaper readers than villages.

In the second place as was previously mentioned, mass communication grants its receiver freedom of choice. Before the war, with a view of acquainting the U. S. A. with Japanese culture, there was established in New York a Japanese Center. Herein was stocked a great variety of books on Japan. Questions on Japan were answered there and lecture courses were given about the cluture of Japan. But generally speaking, Americans who were well-informed on things Japanese made up the majority of attendants while Americans unfamiliar with conditions in Japan made little use of it. Since it perhaps was not intended as a mass communication medium, this Center may not be a proper object for criticism. But generally speaking, people have an inclination to indulge in that which has their liking, approval, or interest. For instance, subscribers of

Akahata, the organ of the Communist Party, are mostly sympathizers with the Party.

Thirdly, the relationship between the type of information disseminated and the character of the recipient must be made clear. For instance, music heard on the air varies from classical to low-grade ballads. In our country Naniwabushi is not highly thought of by well-educated people, while the working class does not like the music of Bach or Beethoven.

The fourth point is to grasp accurately the background and traits of groups which are the objects of information and enlightenment, by analyzing the recipients of newspapers, radio broadcasts and publications. Those who work in mass communication should stratify the people by sex, age, occupation, education, living-standards, attitudes, if possible, and religion. This should be the foundation of plans, contents, and methods of mass communication. In the recesses of mountains, there are villages where there are no newspapers or magazines. We must make special studies of such remote places and seek to reach them.

One method of determining the influence and effect of information, the comprehension test, has been attempted in various methods by psychological laboratories. An example is an experimental investigation related to taxation on how the explanation of tax-payment procedure can be improved. The individual return system has been adopted since the end of the war. Each tax-payer must calculate the tax imposed on his business and file a return. Therefore, printed explanations are distributed to tax-payers. The explanation should be designed so that every tax-payer can make the return correctly. Reading through the explanation, we are not sure that we understand either. We salaried workers have not experienced difficulty in tax-payment procedure because our taxes are deducted at the source.

However, those who pay the business profit tax must prepare returns by themselves. What is more, since this group includes small entrepreneurs, such as green grocers, fish-sellers, shoe-dealers, coffee-house keepers, carpenters, stone-masons, stall-keepers, and day laborers, the explanation of the tax-payment procedure becomes an extremely important matter. The Finance Ministry has showed grave concern over the problem and cooperated with us in a special investigation within the jurisdiction of the Yotsuya Tax Office. We tried to discover how much of the explanation of tax-payment procedure was understood; whether it was possible to file a return only by reading the explanation used at present, and how the explanation should be revised to make it more readily understood.

In the first part of the test, we gave a hypothetical example, let the respondents read the explanation, and make out the return. There were incredibly few who could answer the problem perfectly, a little over 1 in 100. Since more than 20 percent of the tax-payers had filed returns for the last fiscal year, it is considered that most of them did not make

out the returns by reading the explanation but appealed to outside help. A professor of a university told me that it took him more than 8 hours to understand how to enter the return and when he did the calculation over again, he got a different answer. Thus, we found out that the explanations were of no use.

In Test B, the explanation was given in Kana (syllabic characters) and Chinese ideographs; Test C was written in easy words, and phrases, with kana used for technical terms, and Test D was written in kana, in simpler form than Test C. The examinees, i.e., payers of the business profits tax, were divided into groups by occupations and given the four explanations of the hypothetical question. Test C was the most readily understood. We expected Test D, written all in kana, to be the most effective, but it probably was not because the explanation written all in kana was too difficult to understand.

As you might already know, thanks to such experimental studies, the explanation for income-tax returns distributed this year is much easier to understand then that of last year. For example, many people made mistakes about the deduction for their dependents. This is now explained. The explanation also has been changed in other respects. All this indicates that the Finance Ministry is trying to simplify the individual return through a simplification of the explanation.

The second method is to measure the effect of mass communication by sampling the opinions and attitudes of the public. One of the most frequently used methods at present is the public opinion survey. By this method, opinions and attitudes toward problems winning public attention are measured. Opinions are obtained through interviews, which reflect public response to information received.

Recently, the public opinion survey has come to be used by democratic governments in policy making. For example, the U. S. Department of Agriculture surveyed farmers' opinions on agricultural policy. The National Public Opinion Survey Institute was established in the Japanese Government recently. The public opinion survey plays a great role in measuring the effect of mass communication.

The third method to measure the effect of mass communication is to observe changes in attitudes of the recipients of mass communication. In other words, the problem is whether the people who receive the advertisement, publicity, or other form of information, are taking the action intended. At the time of Traffic Safety Week, various publicity plans were carried out. By investigating traffic accidents and violations of traffic laws before and after this week, the effect of this publicity could be measured.

The extent to which information has been accepted by the public should be noted. For instance, according to the survey mentioned before which was conducted during Traffic Safety Week, only 4 percent of some

475,000 leaflets distributed from an airplane were picked up and read. However, it also was revealed that one leaflet was shared by about 4 persons. It can be concluded that, considering the expense, handbills distributed door-to-door are more effective than those dropped from an airplane. Surveys of newspapers, magazines, and books, such as the reading survey which the Mainichi Shimbun conducts every year, or the newspaper subscription survey which the Press Association conducts periodically, serve to produce satisfactory tests of mass communication.

READABILITY

By Minoru Go,
Public Opinion and Sociological Research Division, CIE

> Readability: The quality of a reading matter that makes it interesting and understandable to those for whom it is written, at whatever level of educational experience.
> C. Good, (Dictionary of Education, 1945)

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At least two different terms, "communication" and "mass communication," may have to be explained before touching on readability itself. "Communication" is defined as an action to influence human actions, ways of thinking and feeling through spoken or written words. The aim of communication is to lead human beings to act and think in a desired direction.

"Mass communication" is essentially no more than an extension of "communication" applied to a mass audience. It may be said that mass communication is a process of mutual communication in which speakers or writers communicate their thoughts, and feelings to groups of listeners or readers by means of spoken or written words in order to cause them to understand what they mean, or to act in the manner meant or desired by the speakers or writers.

Readability is directly linked with printing, and printing is closely associated with the fabric of letters or characters. But the fabric of Japanese characters, as such, fortunately or unfortunately, occupies a peculiar position. Where a set of 26 letters, or 52 inclusive of capital letters, will do in the case of English, there are no less than 20,000 Chinese characters in an ordinary Japanese dictionary. In addition, we have hiragana, katakana, and romaji to add to the already great confusion of our letters as a fabric. We have, therefore, many difficulties in our reading process, so many that the weak-hearted are likely to be overwhelmed by these enormous difficulties.

Many efforts have been made during the past 40 years, to overcome this confusion, particularly since the end of the war. The general intent is to make the language more comprehensible, more readable, and easier to write. Particular attention has been devoted to the selection of Chinese characters in daily use.

The daily-use Chinese characters constitute a group of 1,880 characters which most frequently appear in major newspapers and magazines. It follows that we can understand almost all articles if we have an adequate knowledge of these 1,880 characters.

While there have been some protests, 1,880 daily-use Chinese characters have been selected and are generally accepted. But even if these characters have been widely put into practice, shall we or can we remain content with them? Let us then proceed to some examples of scientific measurement.

One of them is the "Literacy Test," which was carried out during the period from August 8 to 26, 1948 among 16,814 men and women in the 15 to 64-year-old group in 270 towns and villages throughout the country, by the Ministry of Education. The object was to investigate the extent of reading and writing ability of the people through the media of hiragana, katakana, mathematical figures, and daily-use Chinese characters. This investigation is estimated to correspond to a test involving 40,000, 000 individuals. Accordingly, the results are accurate.

First, let me explain how the 98 questions in this test were prepared. Of approximately 64,000 words appearing in various articles of major papers, key words which are used most frequently were selected and combined. The test problems were thought to be exceedingly easy for the examinees, but only 17.8 percent succeeded and the rest or 82.2 percent failed, contrary to expectations. In view of this unfavorable situation, is it possible and wise for us to spend additional time and money in teaching the people to learn the national language?

What can be done to set up countermeasures which will coincide with the people's ability to understand? The most familiar corrective step is to consider whether the list of 1,880 kanji truly measures the reading and writing ability of the nation. The answer is no. These kanji were designated by the authors of the list after small scale experiments. So it can be concluded that they represent a standard far above the degree of literacy of the people. This fact is better proved by the outcome of a literacy test conducted on a more scientific basis. Therefore, the 80 percent majority who failed in the test are not necessarily illiterate. Rather, it must be concluded that the structure of Japanese letters is unnecessarily complicated, and that if articles in newspapers and magazines are to be read and understood by the people in general, it is necessary for the kanji used therein to be further reduced in number. In other words, this and other tests suggest that the people should switch from the complicated structure of ideographic kanji to a new vocabulary of phonetic kana.

Let us take another example and consider the problem of transition from meaning-indicating letters to sound-indicating letters. An experiment was conducted with Roman characters at 90 primary schools for about one year. The problem was whether students could read a mixture of Chinese characters and kana faster than Roman characters. It was found they

could read either with almost the same speed. But let us compare which was more fully understood. Roman letters were understood twice as well as the other. Thus it can be concluded that the future course of our national letters should be transferred from meaning-expressing letters to sound-expressing letters.

Needless to say, effective mass communication has a great bearing upon the present and future destiny of our country. The ideas and destiny of any nation depend upon effective mutual communication of wills, thoughts, sentiments, and ideals. The foundation of a democratic society depends upon this to a great extent.

The problem is how the Japanese language can be made more readable in outward form as well as in substance. The results of two or three scientific experiments in regard to this problem suggest definitely that it is necessary to change the present meaning system in order to make it more effective in mass communication.

DISCUSSION

Question (By the National Tax Board): Mr. Matsumiya, I want to bring up your example of the difficulty in understanding the tax instructions. There is no question that they are so difficult that even tax officials say they can hardly understand them. But the fact is that the instructions are inherently complicated and do involve difficult legal points. While I agree with you that they should be made easier, I should like to know if you have any specific suggestion which can make them more comprehensible to the average citizen.

Answer (By Mr. Matsumiya): I understand fully how difficult it is for the tax officials to make the instruction easier. However, several approaches are possible. It is true that the instructions must be exhaustive and detailed and that there must be no loopholes from a legal point of view. However, the job could be made a good deal easier by varying the instruction forms for different types of people; for example, by having different forms for farmers and small merchants. Another thing that might be done is to try to simplify the language and presentation of the instructions. In other words, if the officials could write them from the standpoint of the tax payers, rather than from that of the officials, it would be an improvement.

Question: Mr. Matsumiya has already pointed out the importance of making the people understand and of convincing them of the reasons for a given informational program. However, it seems to me that it is also important to appeal to the emotions of people in order to secure their cooperation. I would like to hear Mr. Matsumiya's ideas on that matter.

Answer.(By Mr. Matsumiya): I am a psychologist, and from the stand-point of that profession what you say is very true. In formulating an information program, it is important at all times to have clearly in mind the possible ways in which people can be approached. It is, of course, true

that people are affected and moved by their emotions. But it is also important to remember that the specific method to be used should be suitable to the particular group being approached, to the time, and circumstances. In this connection it is important to bear in mind that methods based upon an appeal to reason may have more strength and continuity than appeals based exclusively upon emotions.

SESSION NO. 4
PRESS

CHAIRMAN
Y. Fujimaki, Information Chief, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry

HOW TO HOLD A GOOD PRESS CONFERENCE
By George R. Splane
Press Officer, Press and Publications Branch, CIE.

One of the most effective ways for any government agency to impart news to the press, and through the press to the people of Japan, is to hold well-planned press conferences. There are several reasons why the press conference is effective, and these should be borne in mind by information officers responsible for arranging them:

1. In addition to making a news announcement simultaneously to the entire press, a press conference enables the individual reporter to ask questions on a particular phase of the topic which interests him or his editor. This means that the reporter will write a longer and more detailed account of the conference, since he can write into his story some original material which he obtained from the speaker in response to a question. This differs significantly from the practice of handing out a press release without giving reporters a chance to ask questions. In the case of a press release, the editor knows that all newspapers received exactly the same announcement and there is no opportunity for his paper to publish a distinctive story which may differ in tone and emphasis from the same announcement published in other papers. Published accounts of press conferences should not differ in their factual content, but a newspaper can express its own individualism by choosing the particular facts or statements which it wants to feature. Because of this freedom of interpretation which a press conference permits, newspapers are inclined to give these stories more space and prominence than they do for written announcements.

2. A press conference can and should be held by a high ranking official of the agency concerned. A person of this type may be too busy to see reporters individually and the reporters begin to think of the official as being unapproachable. A press conference, however, enables

the reporter to see and question the high official. The very fact that the man is important impresses the reporter with the importance and significance of what the man has to say and results in more space being devoted in the newspaper to the subject at hand.

3. Most important of all--particularly in Japan--a press conference enables all daily papers to obtain a certain piece of news simultaneously which usually means they will all publish the news in their next edition. This is important because Japanese newspapers operate in an atmosphere of intense rivalry and professional jealousy. If one newspaper publishes an exclusive story, rival papers often prefer to ignore the story completely, rather than publish it later. Apparently, Japanese editors feel that publishing a piece of news 24 hours after a rival has printed it is tantamount to a public confession that his paper was scooped. Press conferences and releases enable government agencies to avoid this situation. If it has some news to impart, a government agency should make sure that it gets in many newspapers and thus reaches a maximum number of people.

It can be seen that press conferences should rank high on the list of techniques which an information officer has at his disposal. In planning and conducting press conferences, there are a number of points to be kept in mind:

1. Whenever possible, press conferences should be held by the ranking official of the agency concerned. The importance and significance which the average reader attaches to any announcement increases with the rank of the speaker who is quoted. This can be illustrated in the field of politics. If the Prime Minister makes a statement, it is prominently published in all newspapers. If the same statement is made by the chief cabinet secretary, it receives somewhat less emphasis. If the identical words are spoken by a man who is merely a member of a party's Central Executive Committee, they receive still less prominence in the press. In the field of government, best results will be obtained if important announcements are made by the minister himself, or the vice-minister if the minister is unable to appear. If the announcement to be made involves the work of only one bureau, rather than the entire ministry, the press conference should be held by the bureau chief, rather than one of his subordinates. This practice will pay off in the amount of space which the newspapers devote to the news.

2. When possible, press conferences should be held at regularly stated times and always at the same place. This will eliminate uncertainty or misunderstanding on the part of reporters and will prevent the awkward situation which results when a newspaper misses a press conference because its reporter did not know a conference was to be held or could not find the room in which it was taking place. If your agency is not in a position to hold press conferences on a regular schedule, extreme care should be exercised to see that all newspapers and news agencies are given ample warning when and where a press conference is to take place. This is the responsibility of the information officer who should

have a list of all newspapers and news services in the city, as well as the local bureaus of important out of town papers, and should make sure that each paper on the list is notified. A newspaper which misses an important story feels resentment toward the agency involved.

3. A cardinal rule in planning press conferences, however, is that press conferences should be avoided unless the speaker has something to disclose that is important enough to be newsworthy. For this reason, regularly scheduled press conferences mentioned above may be impractical for officials below ministerial rank. No attempt should be made to hold press conferences on such a schedule if it means that the speaker frequently faces the reporters and confesses that he has no news to impart. An important government official such as the Prime Minister can afford to meet the press regularly and tell them periodically that he has nothing to say. Since he is an important source of news, reporters will keep coming back. But lesser officials cannot presume to take those liberties. Moreover, press conferences should not be called to hand out relatively unimportant scraps of news. Disclosures of a routine nature should be made available to newspapers in press releases.

4. Persons holding press conferences should make every effort to give responsive answers to the questions put to them. It is entirely too easy for a government official to brush aside a question with a curt "No comment," or "I prefer not to answer that." Reporters, of course, frequently ask shrewd questions which the speaker does not care to answer. However, the speaker will keep the confidence and respect of the reporters if he offers some explanation as to why he cannot answer a certain question. In many cases, he will be unable to reply for publication, but can put the reporters' minds at ease by telling them "off the record" why it is impossible to be quoted on that particular point. For the most part, Japanese newspaper men have demonstrated that they can be trusted to keep off-the-record information to themselves. Often the press carries on a continuing feud with the government on the question of news gathering. An atmosphere of mutual distrust can be avoided if the government official makes an honest effort to understand the reporter's motive in asking the question, answers it if possible, or, if not, he lets the reporter know why the question can't be answered.

5. If possible, any announcements to be made at the press conference should be written and copies of the statement reproduced so that each reporter can have one. This is particularly desirable if figures or statistics are included in the announcement. If the reporter has a copy of the statement which he can take back to the office with him when he writes his story, the chances for errors or misquotations are greatly reduced.

If careful attention is given to the points outlined above, government agencies will soon find that the press conference can be a most effective means of conveying important information to the people.

WRITING EFFECTIVE PRESS RELEASES

By James P. Emerson
Rural Affairs Information Officer CIE

Basic policy and subject-matter for all media should be made public first through a press release. The information disclosed in press releases and press conferences gives facts and sets official policy for the use of all other media. Therefore, every information section needs a strong press service.

What are the advantages of newspapers and magazines as information media? First, they reach many people. It is estimated that most Japanese people read one or more newspapers, and at least one-third of them read magazines.

A second advantage of the press is economy of coverage. Through stories printed in newspapers and magazines, a government agency can give information to millions of people at practically no cost to itself. Compare the few yen that it costs to duplicate a few copies of a press release with the several million yen involved in printing a leaflet to reach an equally large number of people. Newspapers, of course, have no obligation to the government to print press releases. Instead newspapers print and interpret the business of government as legitimate news. Newspapers also print news about government as a responsibility of the press in a democratic society to keep citizens informed about the activities of their government.

A third advantage of the press is speed. Usually the news coming from a press conference or a press release is in the hands of millions of people within a few hours of its release.

A fourth advantage of the press is the written record which is left for the reader. People can re-read a newspaper story or a magazine article in whole or in part as many times as necessary for complete understanding. In addition, the story or article may be kept by the reader for future reference as, for example, an article on regulations governing the calculations of taxes.

In view of the advantages of the press as an information outlet, it is difficult to understand the indifferent and sometimes hostile attitude of some government agencies toward the press. Government information services should take the lead in improving the relations between government officials and newspaper reporters.

One reason why government officials in a democracy often look with disfavor upon the press is the criticism which a free press frequently levels at public officials and their actions. Sometimes that criticism is unfair, unjustified, and malicious. At other times, the criticism may be based upon incomplete facts due to incompetent reporting. And, of course, sometimes criticism hurts because it is thoroughly justified!

But the cure for the shortcomings of the press is not to shut off the flow of information or to play favorites with friendly newspapers. The cure is to intensify efforts to serve all the press, to give more complete information about the business at hand, and then to let the people judge. No newspaper can long endure in a free society by presenting false stories to the people. Even your most bitter press enemy is bound in the long run to print some of your releases and statements.

What results can you expect from a press release? What happens when you toss a pebble into a pond? The pebble creates a ripple that flows outward in an ever-widening area. Press releases create much the same effect. Their first splash is heard within a few minutes over the radio and within a few hours through daily newspapers. The second ripple is created when many weekly newspapers, magazines, and technical journals publish all or part of the release at a later date. Another ripple will be created when newspapers and other publications write editorials based upon the release. Still another ripple may be a poster based upon an idea in the release. If the subject is important enough and the splash big enough, it may be treated as the subject for a motion picture, a leaflet, a series of discussion meetings, or special radio program. Finally, a last ripple may occur months or years later when the press release is used as the 'authority for a reference in a history book. Some releases may create only one small ripple in the daily press; others will create a great splash; but every press release plays some part in informing the people.

Press releases should be accurate, complete, and understandable. These rules should be followed in preparing releases:

1. Press releases must be accurate. Releases from a government agency speak with the authority of the government of Japan. The information contained in a press release may be the basis for actions and decisions by millions of people. Therefore, the people must have confidence in the accuracy of the facts in press releases.

2. Press releases must be complete. Only as the people know the complete facts about -- and the reasons for -- government action can they, the people, exercise their citizenship intelligently. Too often a government bureau merely outlines the bare facts of an action and fails to explain the 'why' certain decisions have been made Furthermore, government officials can gain better public understanding and sympathy for their actions by giving complete information.

3. Press releases should be written in news style. While reporters for the daily newspapers usually rewrite a release to fit their individual styles, don't forget that many smaller publications print all or part of your original release without change. As in any news story, press releases should detail the most important facts in the first paragraphs and then the lesser facts in order of importance. Too often government press releases bury significant facts far down in the text so that the reporters miss their significance or perhaps overlook them completely.

Press releases should be written concisely and in simple, understandable language. It is an occupational disease of government officials everywhere to talk and write at excessive length in a jargon of their own which is not completely understood by the average person or even by many other government officials. The press division of an information section has a primary duty to edit the words of government officials so they are understood. As an Englishman once stated: "Civil servants must think as wise men think, and speak as common men speak." Releases should use terms and characters that are understood by the average person — the factory worker at his lathe and the farmer in his rice paddy. A grave mistake of most government releases is the use of myriad statistics that have no meaning for the reader however impressive they are to the author. Now, statistics are necessary documentation for many statements but they should be presented in meaningful terms. For example, how many of us can visualize 100,000 tons of staple food which has been released into rationing channels? There are two principal ways to make statistics better understood. One is to convert the statistics into terms of ordinary comprehension; for example, 100,000 tons of food or 3 go for every person receiving rations. Another way to present figures is in comparisons. For example: 100,000 tons of food which is 10 percent more (or perhaps less) than the tonnage released for the same period a year ago. Nearly all current statistics can be compared with some past period of time.

Now that you know how to write a good press release, what should you write about? My observation is that Japanese bureau chiefs need to develop their sense of news. Some Ministries administering programs which affect the daily lives of every person in Japan fail to issue more than two or three press releases a week. Many Japanese reporters complain that government officials are reluctant to give out news; many officials have to be pursued to tea houses for interviews on routine subjects. It is the responsibility of the press division in the information section to improve this situation by making information about pertinent government business available to the press through regular releases. A large Ministry creates enough news to issue several press releases every day, and the Minister can profitably hold two or four press conferences a month to volunteer information about the business of government and to answer the questions of the reporters.

How can Japanese officials develop a better sense of news? As a starting point, let us consider subjects appropriate for press releases:

1. The public statements and speeches of the Minister, Bureau Chiefs, and other ranking officials. When a top official speaks in public, that is news. Practically every day a ranking official in any agency is delivering a speech in Tokyo or in the prefectures. These speeches should be summarized in a press release, and copies of the release, plus the full text, be made available to the press in the locality where the speech is delivered. Copies should be made available to newsmen in Tokyo. As far as practical, these releases should be issued

several hours in advance of the delivery of the speech with a caution that they are not to be published until the time of delivery.

2. The regular and special reports issued by a Ministry. The highlights of these reports should be explained and summarized in a press release, and the full text of the report also should be available. Again, the issuance of a press release is a service to busy reporters who do not have the time to read through several pages of an official report. An alert information section will keep a schedule of all regular reports and plan its preparation of press releases accordingly. Releases also should be written about special reports which have come into the Ministry and are of interest to the public.

3. Explanations of new laws, regulations, and programs to be administered by the Ministry. This includes periodic reports on the progress of programs such as food rationing, printing of textbooks, and collection of crops. Particular emphasis should be given in the press release on the effect of these new laws and programs upon the life of the average citizen.

4. Reports on social, economic, and scientific trends and developments affecting the Japanese people. The government collects and has access to a large volume of statistical and factual information that the people as a whole, and special groups, need to know. For example, the results of scientific investigations conducted by the government, reports on trends in health, food production, commerce, crime, and labor unions. Knowledge of these trends both at home and around the world is essential for the people to solve problems affecting their welfare.

5. Notice of deadline dates or other legal regulations requiring compliance by citizens. Examples: deadline dates for payment of taxes, voting registration, ration registration, etc.

The information section should be responsible for coordinating the preparation and distribution of all releases from all bureaus within a Ministry or agency. In order to do this, the information section needs clear-cut authority. Definite procedures for issuing releases should be established and followed.

Releases usually will originate in a bureau which has information about a program, a problem, or a development to present to the public. The bureau writes the first draft of the release which then is submitted to the press division of the information section. The press division reviews the draft copy and makes changes necessary for accuracy, completeness, and understanding. It also reviews the copy and consults with bureaus concerned to be sure it conforms to broad Ministry policy.

After the press chief and his assistants finish their editing, the release draft should be returned to the originating bureau for final clearance. The bureau is the final authority for the facts and policy in

the release; the information section is the authority on effective presentation of the material. The approved draft is returned to the information section which duplicates adequate copies of the release and distributes the copies through the press table and by mailing.

Now your release is prepared. How shall it be distributed? A general policy should be to distribute releases as widely as possible to any outlet which will make the information available to large numbers of people. Releases should go to newspaper and radio reporters covering the agency; to magazines, trade journals, and private organizations interested in the subject. The reporters usually will pick up their copies in person. In addition, information sections should develop mailing lists of other publications and organizations interested in the topics treated in the release. For example, educational magazines and organizations will want to receive copies of all press releases dealing with education. Similar mailing lists should be set up for public health, industry, labor unions, agriculture, and other interests. Don't forget that a small technical journal with only 2,000 circulation may disseminate special information more effectively to a group than a bi- newspaper with 2 million circulation.

In distributing releases all reporters and publications should be treated equally. All newsmen are entitled to receive every release simultaneously when copies are placed on a public press table. No reporter should be favored with a copy ahead of other reporters.

In conclusion, let us review the functions of a press service of an information section: Does it have a capable press chief? Are its press releases accurate, complete, and understandable: Are all subjects of public concern being covered? Are the press releases well distributed? These are major points that should receive the attention of an information section.

Question (By Yomiuri): I would like to know the attitude of American newspapermen toward "scoops."

Answer (By Mr. Splane): The attitude of American newspapermen toward "scoops" is essentially the same as newspapermen everywhere. Newspapermen always work for "scoops." The press is interested in building up circulation and prestige and will always try for "scoops." In American journalism, it has become popular in the last few years for newspaper reporters to publish predictions or forecasts of actions which the government is planning to undertake. These men argue that it is necessary for them to publish predictions of what the government is planning to do because the government is too slow in announcing its plans. This may or may not be true. My personal belief is that, in general, government agencies, wherever they may be, can and should make more information available to all reporters.

Question (By Shimbun No Shimbun): I would like to know the number of press conferences that should be held each week.

Answer (By Mr. Splane): That all depends on how busy the particular agency is: sometimes two or three a week, sometimes no more than once a month. For your information, the President of the United States normally holds only one press conference a week.

Question: I would like to know more about reporters obtaining information from a Ministry.

Answer (By Mr. Splane): It is a very commendable thing for newspapers to try to get information, and if it weren't for the fact that newspapermen are curious and suspicious the government might do many improper things. Newspapers are an important safeguard to society. Newspapermen should continue to be that way. They should try to get legitimate information, and, at the same time, the government should issue information without favor to all newspapers. I certainly do not believe that Japanese Government agencies should take it upon themselves to suppress certain items of news. That would constitute government control of the press.

Question (By the Welfare Ministry): I want to know what happens in case of conflict as to the time of a press announcement. Often times the information section has very little authority. Do such things happen in the United States? What would be the remedy? The actual situation now is that a division or bureau may issue a press release with no control exercised by the information section.

Answer (By Mr. Emerson): First of all, the information section should have its authority clear-cut and established by a high official. I know that this authority is in writing at the Agriculture-Forestry Ministry. As to whether a release should be referred to a higher authority such as a Vice-Minister, I don't think these conflicts will come up very often. In connection with any information activity, authority should be clearly defined. The same can be said of any section in a Ministry.

Question: In present-day Japan the space in newspapers is limited and if all the papers handled a release in the same way it would not get much coverage. Isn't it preferable for reporters to write their own stories?

Answer (By Mr. Emerson): Yes, I agree with you. Newspapers should show enterprise and interpret releases according to their own policies and space limitations. Needless to say, the facts in a release should not be changed.

Question (By Construction Ministry): I favor giving reporters every opportunity to get news. To help them, we should issue more releases. It should be the fundamental job of government information people to make news available. Do you agree?

Answer (By Mr. Emerson): Yes, I agree wholeheartedly. And I think that government information agencies can learn a lot if they study newspapers and see how they handle news emanating from the government.

Question (By Labor Ministry): At present, paper space is very limited. If press releases are given out to all papers uniformly, they get very little space. Often this space is so small many people will neglect to read them. For practical purposes, wouldn't it be desirable to give releases only to big papers that are read by many millions of people?

Answer (By Kyodo): Papers are smaller than a few years ago but the technique of disseminating and summarizing the news items is better developed. Therefore, newspapers carry as many items as before. To give press releases only to the big papers would reach a few million people. Government agencies should try to cover the whole country. Moreover, a government agency has no right to play favorites among newspapers in distributing news.

SESSION NO. 5

RADIO

CHAIRMAN

T. Furugaki, Managing Director, Broadcasting Corporation of Japan.

RADIO AND INFORMATION CAMPAIGNS

Dwight B. Herrick
Officer in Charge, Radio Branch, CIE

Of all information media, radio is the newest and the one which reaches the greatest number of people at one time. No previously developed method of communication has ever had quite the same appeal to a great mass audience, and none offers radio's opportunity for such effective simultaneous mass dissemination of information.

In countries such as America, where the radio listener is given a wide choice in what he may listen to at any given time, the problem of appealing to the listener with informational programs competing against straight entertainment, is far greater than such countries as Japan and Great Britain, where the choice of stations is limited to two, three, or four. While this has its disadvantages from the viewpoint of the listener, it makes the problem of getting information across relatively simple for the broadcaster.

Yet this is not a simple problem for the broadcaster in any country regardless of the variety of programs available to the listener. The listener's wishes must first be observed and obeyed. That is the primary responsibility of the broadcaster in any democratic country. Otherwise radio becomes merely an implement of the few to sway the opinions of and enslave the many. Too often in the brief history of radio, it has been a factor in enslaving people. A power-hungry few have misused it to their own interests rather than to the interests of the people.

Radio belongs to no one person or group. It belongs to the people, who assign to duly appointed representatives the responsibility to broad-

cast in the interest of the whole population.

The people of a country, having thus assigned this privilege, have the right to expect from these servants broadcasting that is truthful, informative, entertaining, educational, or whatever suits their needs at a given time. Radio should not be used as a propaganda instrument, nor should it be used solely to entertain the listener and fail to inform him.

Radio is a supplement to other media. Radio cannot, by itself, be a completely effective means of information and education. The basic job of education belongs to the educators, but radio does stimulate further study. In the same way, radio makes millions of impressions upon millions of listeners at one moment. One bit of information reaching the ears of millions of listeners at the same instant makes this medium a powerful instrument. It also makes it a dangerous instrument, for one bit of misinformation or the selection of information for selfish objectives can misdirect public thought.

Japan, as much as any country in the world, has learned how radio can be misused. Japanese radio is now undoing much of the harm previously done through its misuse. In the past four years, BCJ has contributed untold support to the democratization of the Japanese people through the medium of information broadcasts, to say nothing of the equally important entertainment broadcasts which have built the morale of the people so necessary for national rejuvenation.

Like information in any form, radio information must be made palatable to the listener. The average listener, whatever his background, prefers to listen to and to read interesting things. The average radio listener will turn off his radio or close his ears if what comes from the loudspeaker does not please or stimulate him regardless of how informative it may be.

Thus, we cannot assume that the people are listening to all information being disseminated over the radio. In American radio, we have a phrase which says that "education and information must be sugar coated to disguise the bitterness of the pill." Although overworked, this phrase is still most appropriate and experience has proven it to be true.

This, however, is a problem for the broadcaster and not for the people who supply the broadcaster with the materials for his program. The materials in themselves must be factual, truthful, and informative. It is impossible for the broadcaster, an artist concerned with adapting materials, to know everything about the many activities which concern his programs. Thus the broadcaster must call upon authorities in the arts and business and government for help to build his programs. For entertainment programs, he relies upon the writer or originator of an idea and performing artists to develop an enjoyable show. For an information program, the broadcast must be more than just a show; it must be factual and the facts must come from people in government, in education in private business, or elsewhere.

In America, the broadcaster gives the listener up-to-the-minute information on a variety of subjects. This is a great responsibility when one considers the necessity of putting this information into palatable form. In Japan, the broadcasting problem is twofold: first, the information must be presented; second, it must be presented to fit into the framework of instruction in the fundamental principles of democracy.

It is not enough for a Japanese broadcaster to mention a campaign such as Industrial Democratization in a spot announcement or to have an announcer interview a government official on an unprepared recording. Unfortunately, that happens too often because BCJ personnel do not have at its disposal full information on a subject and must rely on the person being interviewed. Such a method obviously means that the personal opinion of the official goes on the air. It is therefore necessary that the facts be made available to radio personnel who can then make good radio programs out of them. Government agencies as well as private organizations which are attempting to advance ideas, must supply that information to BCJ.

Once supplied, the broadcaster must make the best possible use of it. He is the program specialist. He knows better than anyone else, from long experience surveys, mail received, newspaper comment, and countless other ways, in what form the listener prefers to receive his information.

There are many ways to give information to the radio listener.

The simplest is the spot announcement, which BCJ is using to advantage more and more. The spot announcement is a reminder to the listener, not a complete story. Constant repetition over the air has been proven in the United States to sell merchandise and to "sell" ideas. Popular programs which have an established audience can use information material effectively. A popular personality on the air can, in a few seconds, plant the germ of an idea in the listener's mind. It is not necessary - in fact it is often not advisable - to overwork any one idea on a single program. The popular comedian or moderator can often make the listener look further into a suggestion. Perhaps it's simply because the average person is impressionable to suggestions from people he likes or admires. In the same way, the listener can be interested in building a better house, or saving his money, or paying his taxes. The listener is anxious to like and admire the people who come into his home through the medium of a radio loudspeaker. In effect, these people are his guests.

In Japanese radio, the usual program which aims to give the listener information is a discussion or a straight talk. There is perhaps no better way to interest the listener than with a good talk. But too often talk is cheap, and few people are interested in what they can get for little or nothing. The proper presentation of ideas or information on radio through the medium of discussion and talk is basically a problem for the broadcaster. First and foremost, complete information and re-

search must be available to him. There are now several good discussion programs on the Japanese networks, but they are not as good as they could be because BCJ needs more facts for them. In other words, the coating of the pill must be done by the broadcaster -- information agencies must supply the ingredients of the pill.

Still another type of broadcast used to advance ideas and information is the dramatic program. American radio has used this method increasingly over the years, and it has an effectiveness that no other type of program can claim. This is true, probably, because it satisfies the listener's appetite for entertainment while at the same time increasing his knowledge. All people like to feel that they know a little something more than their neighbor, but at the same time most adults are not very willing to take the time to learn. The dramatic program makes learning pleasant and painless. It dresses up the subject matter in terms of human experience, whether real or fictional, and no point can be accented better than through the experience that someone has suffered or enjoyed.

True enough, the dramatic program may not have the same amount of information that a talk or discussion may include. However, it usually is better to get across one or two ideas and stimulate the listener's thinking processes than to fill a half an hour on the air with solid information, facts, and figures, most of which go in one ear and out the other. The average person's ability to retain what he hears has been proven to be quite limited, and it is very easy to misinterpret or enlarge upon what one hears. The reiteration of a basic point throughout a dramatic script, or, for that matter, even throughout a discussion or speech, is far more effective than cluttering radio time with dry facts which are easily confused with one another.

The documentary drama is merely a variation of the dramatic format. It is basically a drama, but the form allows greater leeway for a writer to combine fact as fact, and fact in the form of fiction. It allows for departure from stylized programing through the inclusion of "live" and recorded materials, quotations, impersonation, or actual appearance of authorities. It is a combination of several forms of radio presentation. But it's basic purpose is still the same - to impart information, ideas, and beliefs while entertaining the listener.

Whatever the program, the radio broadcaster must always be interesting and never dull. Dullness is the unforgivable sin of any medium of information or entertainment.

Where does the information specialist fit into radio braodcasting?

In the first place, he obviously must be fully informed on whatever subject is requested by the broadcaster. This means complete, well-organized libraries of information both for networks and for single local stations. I cannot emphasize enough the importance of local implementation of ideas and information. In Japan too much importance has been

placed on the culture and talent available in the larger cities, particularly in Tokyo. Yet the average Japanese is primarily interested in his own community, his daily living, his home, his food, his neighbors. He is interested in news of his local community to a far greater extent than in the national news of Japan. The average farmer or fisherman is more interested in knowing what his local cooperative is doing and how national conditions and legislation will affect that cooperative. He should be assisted in becoming interested in his local schools, in local politics, in local organizations, and in all the things that contribute to democratic life in a community.

Information offices in local areas should be as well equipped as national offices with information that can be used by the local broadcaster.

Information offices should have on their staffs at least one man or woman who has an appreciation and understanding of the techniques and values of radio. Information specialists working closely with radio stations should study listening reports and surveys. They must get to know the preferences of the audiences in given communities so that information broadcasts will not be directed to disinterested audiences. For instance, information of interest to women should be included on the Women's Hour and not on a program such as The New Farm Village.

Constant material should flow from the large centers to the local areas. Fact sheets should be distributed through national, regional, and local offices of the national agencies to radio stations all over the country, so that each station may have in its own library basic information on every campaign which they may be called upon to implement. The actual method of implementation is, I repeat, the prerogative of the broadcaster.

Once the information has been made available to a radio station, the actual broadcast of that information should be publicized in advance. Posters, on-the-air announcements, and newspaper publicity should be utilized to make an audience want to hear a certain program.

Furthermore, radio broadcasters should be invited to all press conferences and to special meetings to plan overall coverage of an information campaign. The broadcaster is as essential to the success of a campaign as the newspaper man.

The information officer can assist the broadcaster by training people how to speak on the air. Radio speech is vastly different from ordinary talk, which can be dull and still hold an audience simply because it may be difficult or embarrassing to get up and walk out. It isn't difficult or embarrassing to turn off one's radio. In Japan a speaker usually writes his own radio speech, rather than have a professional writer prepare it from the speaker's outline and information. To help speakers make the most of their radio time, instruction leaflets and

personal instruction should be given on how to write and read a radio speech. Don't forget, too, the importance of radio discussion and the rules governing it, such as good manners and respect for the other man's viewpoint.

Above all, information specialists should listen to the radio. The medium of radio has advantages which can be claimed by no other outlet. It comes into the home as living voices; it is ever present; it has the power, unlike other media, to repeat the same information in different ways and create more individual impressions. Radio speaks with natural authority and it can inform while it entertains. Radio promotion or advertising of any campaign or product has a mushrooming effectiveness. Each and every scrap of information that goes over the air may seem in itself a drop in the bucket, but the bucket is soon filled to over-flowing.

HOW GOVERNMENT AGENCIES CAN IMPROVE THEIR SERVICE TO RADIO

By Y. Kasuga
Chief of Program Administrative Section
Broadcasting Corporation of Japan

The broadcasting Corporation of Japan (BCJ) has been engaged in information, in one form or another, throughout its 25-year history. Because BCJ has been the only broadcasting system in Japan, it can be said that BCJ personnel are the best informed Japanese on the use of radio as an information medium.

On a recent broadcast, President Ichimada of the Bank of Japan spoke for two or three minutes, and remarked that there was no intention of devaluating the currency. We learned later that at that time there were many rumors concerning devaluation. President Ichimada's broadcast relieved anxiety and increased confidence in the currency. It also stimulated saving. This is an example of how a bit of information included in a popular program can have considerable effect. On the same program, a speaker said, "The Industrial Bank will purchase wartime government bonds." The next day the number of people who went to the Bank to sell bonds suddenly increased. The other day we had 150 telegrams without addresses to be sent to the families of repatriates arriving from Soviet territory on the Takasago Maru. When the names were announced on the Missing Persons program, the addresses were made known immediately, according to the telegraph office.

After mentioning these examples of the effectiveness of information broadcasts, I would like to tell you how relations between information specialists and BCJ can be improved.

1. The independence and the right of BCJ to edit must be recognized. BCJ is the only broadcasting system in Japan. Therefore, BCJ broadcasts must be for all the people. In this respect, our duties and

responsibilities are the same as those of government information people: to serve the interests of all the people. BCJ has tried to produce programs which we believe to be necessary to the public welfare even though they are not popular with some listeners. Some information programs are examples of this type of broadcast. BCJ is producing programs of this kind on its own responsibility. Consequently, BCJ has the right to edit them. We have received reports which showed that some people are under the false impression that BCJ produces programs for the government. Needless to say, we do cooperate with government information offices and we try to improve information programs. However, BCJ makes its own decisions and assumes full responsibility for them.

2. BCJ has the expert "cooks" who depend upon information specialists for raw materials necessary to create programs. But we decide how programs will be "seasoned" and "served." If you wish us to serve tasty and nutritious dishes, we must have enough material to enable the "cooks" to exercise their full talents. Information offices which offer insufficient material may be neglected.

3. It is gratifying to us that central and local government offices are setting up information sections. However, these sections do not yet provide sufficient material. The Braodcasting Corporation of Japan has 46 stations through out the country. The complaints most often received from them are: (1) The office where the material is to be picked up has not been notified that BCJ will call; and (2) even if the office has been notified, no material is available. It is desirable for local stations to have close liaison with prefectural information agencies, just as the main office of BCJ is in touch with central government offices.

4. Information offices should have at least one person who is familiar with radio as an information outlet. He can advise his chief whether a program should be planned for radio or for some other medium; how to plan radio presentation, and related problems.

The social section of the planning department is the center of information for BCJ. Some planners keep in touch with government offices and other private information outlets. Material collected there is distributed to the proper section of the planning department, such as agricultural affairs, women, and educational. Liaison with local broadcasting stations is kept through the local affairs section.

DISCUSSION

Question (By National Personnel Authority): An agency of the government would like to publicize a specific portion of a law. But BCJ may want to take up a part of the law other than that suggested by the agency. What can be done about this?

Answer (By Mr. Herrick): In general, it is not a good idea to build a program of too many points. I think if there is a specific point that a

ministry wants to publicize BCJ should listen to the suggestions of the government agency involved. However, BCJ has complete freedom of broadcasting and it does not have to accept suggestions. There should be joint respect between BCJ and information agencies and both should give and take. But BCJ has the final decision.

Question (By Taxation Bureau): If commercial radio were established here, I would like to know from an example in America how it might work. Is an information program paid for by a government agency, the same as a company advertising soap?

Answer (By Mr. Herrick): No. When the information is considered to be serving the public, the time is not sold. When and if commercial radio comes to Japan, any broadcaster, BCJ or a private broadcaster, presumably will be licensed to broadcast in the public interest. They will have certain standards to follow and they will be expected to perform as servants of the public.

Question (By Economic Investigation Board): I want to find out whether it is better to furnish BCJ material which has already been assembled, or whether special material should be furnished.

Answer (By Mr. Herrick): I think you should supply a lot of general information to BCJ. If BCJ wants to broadcast a one-half hour program on housing, BCJ should go to the proper office for facts and figures. The writer will then put that information together and prepare the type of show which he thinks will be most effective.

SESSION NO. 6

VISUAL MATERIALS

CHAIRMAN
T. Ozawa, Welfare Ministry

HOW TO PLAN VISUAL PRESENTATION

Frances Baker, Officer in Charge, Exhibits Branch, CIE

Visual presentation calls for close liaison in matters of policy and careful budgeting of time and money. Information must be aimed at the individual. It must stimulate an urge to take some kind of action, and it must explain step by step how the individual can carry out the action.

Visual media most commonly used in Japan fall into two groups:

Group I	Group II
Exhibits	Posters
Film Strips	Cartoons
Opaque Projector Slides	Handbills
Kami-Shibai	Pamphlet Illustrations
	Theater Flash Slides

The media in group I develop information themes through a series of related pictures or illustrations. The material shown by any one of these four methods can be exactly the same. The difference lies only in the method of presentation. The media in group II are single visual presentations which alone carry a message and are not dependent on other information media to convey the thought or appeal.

In planning a visual program it is necessary to consider the following seven points:

1. Purpose of the program
2. Period of effectiveness
3. Target group
4. Visual Medium
5. Cost
6. Number to be produced
7. Distribution Plan

After the first three points have been established it will be found that considerable judgment and juggling of plans must be exercised regarding the remaining four points before a satisfactory plan will be achieved.

1. Purpose of the Program

It should be determined whether the purpose of the program is inspired by a public information need and whether the theme selected should be given priority over other themes. Once a theme is established it is time to decide whether the choice of media will fall in group I or group II. The choice will depend in part upon the length of time for the program.

2. Period of Effectiveness

Production and distribution time must be subtracted from the established period of effectiveness, which may rule out the selection of some media for short-term programs. It may be found that the cost of some media cannot be justified for short-term use. On the other hand, a medium that can be used again may be a wise choice if the short-term program is periodically recurrent. Generally, long term programs fall in media group I and short-term programs in media group II.

3. Target Group

A careful analysis of the target group may effect a great saving of material, may effect the choice of distribution channels, may effect the language used, and may effect the method of presentation. It will be found that the target group may be identified by geographical location, as in case of a program on epidemic control; occupation, as in case of

coal production; economic level, as in selling a high priced cigarette; age, as in the case of youth problems; sex, as in case of certain women's welfare problems.

4. Considering the Media

a. Kami-shibai are more effective than film strips for daytime showing in hot weather when blacked-out rooms are uncomfortable.

b. Posters or handbills distributed at crop receiving points have a better chance of being seen during harvest season than media such as films which require farmers to interrupt their work.

c. Film strips or opaque projector slides used at meetings have a better chance than exhibits of receiving the undivided attention of the audience.

d. Exhibits posted where there is a continuous stream of people will receive more attention than opaques or documentary films.

e. Outdoor showings of films on opaques after dark in summer will attract city crowds who find houses too warm for early sleep, but will be too late for rural people who have put in a long summer work day.

f. Posters read leisurely on trains and streetcars can be more complicated in nature than those posted on a busy street where the contents must be grasped quickly.

5. Cost

Because there is a great variation in materials, production techniques, and kinds of media, there is a great need for close surveillance of cost in the visual field. By Japanese law any expenditure over ¥ 50,000 made by a government agency is subject to public bidding. As cited before, the period of effectiveness must be remembered and the cost for distribution and maintenance of showing must not be overlooked. Considerable saving can be effected by a knowledge of the technical factors which regulate cost, such as:

a. Quality of paper
b. Size of paper
c. Number of color printing processes
d. Variation in printing processes by artist's techniques
e. Whether film is hand colored or colored processed.

6. Number to be Produced

Once a medium is considered and its cost per unit determined, more often than not the budget will limit production. If time allows and the choice of medium falls in group I, success or failure of the program

may depend on the distribution plan. Short-term programs, if effectively planned and routed, can reach great numbers with few copies of materials.

7. Distribution Plan

The distribution plan may be simple or complicated depending on all the factors discussed, plus such considerations as the technical equipment required, personnel, and the kind of transportation on the receiving end. It is well to check the distribution and use. One method to stimulate public demand is to advertise one medium such as radio through another medium such as posters.

Once a decision has been reached on the above seven points the presentation itself can be considered. The reason for using a visual medium is to attract and to demonstrate. The more familiar the visual symbols, the more readily the reader will identify himself with the demonstration. The same rule applies to language.

Since attraction is a factor, an attempt should be made to vary the dominant color, composition, or line of force between one presentation and the next, as well as other informational materials distributed to the same group.

Abstract subject matter such as announcement posters, if difficult to illustrate, are better presented by using color and an interesting display of typography than by using unrelated pictorial matter which has tendency to confuse the reader.

It is advisable for information sections to employ at least one full time artist. This artist should be skilled in rough sketching and layout in order to put ideas under discussion on paper so they may be judged visually.

The visual information officer should be carefully selected since the production of visual media expends large sums of taxpayers money. Without thorough knowledge to plan a visual program, the visual information officer is not fullfilling his responsibility for public service

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DISTRIBUTING VISUAL MATERIALS

Lt. A. M. Schilling, Civil Information Branch
Civil Affairs Section, Headquarters Eighth Army

In October 1948, CIE, SCAP, released 1150 Natco 16-mm sound movie projectors and 675 stereopticon projectors to all prefectures. The machines were issued to support adult information programs. The Social Education Section of each prefecture was selected to administer the visual education program. This was done because the Social Education Sections were best prepared with funds and personnel with which to properly

conduct such a large and new program. The words "Visual Education" have been misunderstood by many. It would be better to think of this as a "visual information" program, designed primarily to reach the adult population, with showings to school children given secondary importance.

Hatsusha 103 was issued by the Ministry of Education to explain the operation of the program. The individual prefectures are free to conduct the visual education program in an autonomous manner, with no control from the Ministry of Education. There are a few simple regulations concerning the shipment of films and projectors, the inventory and care of films. Except for these few conditions, the prefectures have developed the program as it best fits each community.

It was requested in Hatsusha 103 that the prefectural film library be established in the prefectural book library, if possible. This was requested in order to establish the visual education program as a free public service, supported locally by the taxpayer, and therefore always easily available to him. The visual aid officer is selected from the staff of the prefectural social education section. His duty is to encourage the development of the program through out the prefecture, train projectionists, and contact all groups interested in using the films and equipment. In order that he may be free to do all this, he has been relieved of the routine duties of booking and cataloging films and of preparing attendance records. These duties have been assigned to the staff of the prefectural book library, working closely with the visual aid officer. This separation of duties also will help to keep the operations of the films library free from domination by one individual.

All the prefectures in a region financially support a regional service center. This center exists to repair the machines and distribute films for the prefectures. It is not a higher authority, and has absolutely no control over the conduct of the program in the individual prefectures. A regional film library committee, composed of an equal number of representatives from each prefecture in the region, selects the head of the service center.

The expenses are concerned primarily with the upkeep of the film libraries and service centers, salaries for visual education personnel, and the purchase of electrical spare parts for the projectors. In addition, all prefectures have made provisions in their budgets for the purchase of Japanese 16-mm documentary films.

The prime concern of central government agencies in this program is the production of visual materials for distribution to the film libraries and making available to the libraries information concerning the use of such materials. The recent production of two films by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry is an encouraging step in this direction. Recognizing the fact that government has a part to play in publicizing its activities, the Ministry produced two excellent films, "Young Village" and "Bent with the Years." Two prints of "Young Village" were issued free of charge to each prefecture. "Bent with the Years" was sold at

minimum cost to all film libraries. Forty three prints were sold within a few months after they were placed on sale. Production of these films has encouraged the movie indistry to seek more such work, and in addition has resulted in the creation of favorable public opinion for the agricultural co-op movement.

The next step in this direction would be the placement of all such films in the film libraries, where they will receive the widest public circulation. Quite often a governmental agency produces an excellent film, and then puts it on a shelf in some prefectural office, where it gathers dust. The film libraries in Japan are presently showing documentary films to an average of 2,500,000 persons each week.

Some government officials fear that if they place their films in the film libraries they will not be able to borrow them when they need them. This fear is groundless The primary objective of the program is adult information. Agencies that further this objective are given first priority in the loan of films and equipment.

In addition to being a good outlet for the films produced in support of government programs, the film libraries can also serve as an outlet for film strips and printed materials. To this end, stereopticon projectors were distributed to all prefectures. These projectors can be used to show film strips, in 35-mm single or double frame size. Various ministries have produced many excellent film strips in the past. With such a ready-made projector circuit, it is to the advantage of government information offices to place copies of all film strips in the film libraries.

The versatile stereopticon also may be used to project photographs and drawings. This has strongly influenced the production of posters in many prefectures for now a poster may speak. Let me explain how the poster has found a voice.

In many prefectures, posters are now designed with a series of pictures on them. Each picture is not larger than 6" x 6" in size, and they have a story continuity, similar to the cartoon strips in newspapers. These individual pictures are then cut from the poster and mounted on cardboard, to be projected on the screen, using the stereopticon. A narrator reads an accompanying script, in the manner of the kami-shibai presentation. Adoption of this technique has doubled the poster's life and audience.

In addition to the production of posters for stereopticon use, some prefectures, notably those in Shikoku, have produced excellent stereopticon strips. These are nothing more than a series of pictures printed in strip form, similar to the film strips. These are run through the machine by hand, and a narration is provided. The humorous "Hachi-San"has been the hero of many of Shikoku's stereopticon strips, and has helped in sanitation, crop collection, and tax collection programs.

DISCUSSION

Question (By SCLC): In presenting film strips to prefectural libraries, double Frame strips have been sent. Libraries have been requesting two types of frames, single and double. What do you suggest?

Answer (By Lt. Schilling): The machines were made for single-frame strips. Japanese projectors are made for double-frames. The Japanese Visual Aid Association sells a conversion attachment for 700 yen that will permit the use of either single or double-frame strips.

Question (By the Labor Ministry): Mrs. Baker advised hiring full-time artists in each Information Section, but it is very difficult to hire artists because of budget limitations. What can be done about this? Also, some advertising agencies say that if the government agency will furnish paper they will bear the cost of printing a poster provided the government will permit commercial advertising on part of the poster. What do you think of this idea?

Answer (By Mrs. Baker): A full-time artist is recommended as one of the employee in each Information Section. In some agencies that are very small, that, of course, is not possible. However, if you have someone who understands techniques it will save money in the long run.

There is no objection to allowing a small amount of space on a poster to advertise the information program of another government agency. However, I can see an objection to accepting commercial advertising. For instance, it would not be desirable for a Welfare Ministry poster to advertise a certain brand of medicine.

SESSION NO. 7

PUBLICATIONS

CHAIRMAN
T. Nishi, Information Chief, Bank of Japan

12 STEPS IN PREPARING AN EFFECTIVE PUBLICATION

James P. Emerson, Rural Affairs Information Officer, CIE

The usual purpose of a government publication is, first, to inform the reader and, second, to persuade him to do something with the information. This statement sounds like an obvious truth but many government publications fail to meet this simple test.

To accomplish this dual purpose, we need a plan of attack. It can be organized with three main commands:

Think it out!
Express it effectively!
Try it out!

I am going to aim the attack at an actual target. The objective will be to explain the nine-point economic stabilization program to the general public and to enlist the public's active cooperation in making the program succeed. The same principles apply, of course, to the preparation of any government publication on any sugject.

1. What do we want to teach? We want to inform the people of Japan what the nine-point program is, how it affects them, and what benefits it will bring them.

2. Whom do we want to reach? Here we must consider the age, the sex, the schooling, the business interests, the attitudes, the problems, and the needs of our readers. On first thought, our proposed publication on the nine-point program seems a poor example to illustrate Step 2 since we are aiming it at everybody. But are we? As to age, are we not appealing only to persons over a certain age, perhaps 16 years? Also, should we not appeal to definite groups -- factory workers, farmers, housewives, white collar workers, coal miners, college students? So our problem is more difficult than if we were writing only for housewives on how to sew a dress. In one publication, we must appeal to several groups on the nine-point program. If we appeal only to a vague general public, we may persuade no one.

3. What do we want our readers to do? Does it involve skill, knowledge, or a particular attitude? If we were writing about how to bake bread, we would want the reader to acquire a skill. If we were writing about income tax regulations, we would want him to acquire knowledge. But primarily we want the reader to adopt an attitude; a favorable attitude toward the nine-point stabilization program. To do this, he has to gain knowledge, too. Finally, we want his active cooperation in various ways: producing more and better goods, delivering more food crops, paying only legal prices, using the Public Employment Service if he is out of a job, and doing other things. It is important that we think out what we want the reader to do before we write any publication.

Now we are ready for the next command: To express ourselves effectively.

4. Select a sales talk. We have to give the reader a reason for believing in the soundness of the nine-point program and for supporting it. Advertising men call this motivation, and the best way to get motivation is to connect the reader's interests with what we want him to do. So we ask: what does he want? What do we have to offer that he wants? How will he benefit? What will he lose if he does not do it? Incidentally, this last motivation, of fear, is very effective in certain subjects such as disease control and prevention. For our nine-point publication, we might pick a sales talk something like this:

a. Japan is now importing more than it exports. We all must sacrifice and work hard to become self-supporting again.

b. The best way to do this is to restore and increase our export trade.

c. Therefore, we must make quality goods through efficient methods and labor.

d. This requires that the government live within its income, eliminate subsidies to inefficient producers, and stop inflation.

e. Food crops must be delivered to the maximum because food is our big import.

f. When we achieve stabilization, we will be independent economically and can enjoy our new social and political freedoms.

This sales talk could be improved with more polish but it will serve the immediate purpose in its present rough form. We now have something to "sell" to the reader.

5. We must write an outline for our publication. Be sure to include the interests of the readers in every sentence of the outline. Since the nine-point program affects many different groups of people, we should emphasize ideas with special appeal for each group -- factory workers, farmers, housewives, white collar workers, and so on. Yet we should try to make each of these sections interesting enough to appeal to all readers.

6. We must choose the type of publication which best fits our purpose. To do this we must consider our plan of distribution. How many copies will we need to reach our audience? What is the cheapest way to get a publication to the audience and will it be read? These are important questions and we should get answers before we take any more steps. Our nine-point program publication has a potential reading audience of 53 million people above the age of 15 who make up "the general public." It obviously is too costly and probably unnecessary to print 53 million copies. Perhaps we should use the nation's 16 million households as our distribution base. Yet we may not have to print 16 million copies if we can plan some distribution "shortcuts." The most economical type of publication probably is a leaflet of one sheet, printed on both sides, that can be folded into 4 or 8 pages. In addition to leaflets, other types of government publications are pamphlets, bulletins, and envelope stuffers. The latter are small slips of paper with brief messages that can be stuffed inside the envelopes of all routine mail going from the government to large sections of the public. Whatever our final decision about the type and the distribution of a nine-point publication, you can see there are many factors to consider, not the least of which is the total budget for all information activities.

7. We must pick a title for our leaflet. We want a title which

will identify the subject and connect it with the interest of the reader. For our leaflet, we might choose, "How 9-point Economic Stabilization will Brighten Your Life." For a leaflet on sewing, the title might be "How You Can Make a Beautiful Dress."

8. We should study the outline carefully to determine which ideas can be expressed best in words, which best in drawings, photographs, charts, cartoons, or other means. Opposite each item in the outline, we should make a note of the form of expression which seems preferable. In our 9-point leaflet, we perhaps can best express Japan's current economic plight with words. But a chart may be the most effective way to impress the reader how exports have dropped and how they might be increased. Thus, we analyze each idea in our outline and decide which means of expression will make it most clear to the reader.

9. On a blank sheet of paper we pencil in a dummy layout of the proposed leaflet in its actual size. We indicate the position of the text and each illustration. Then we consult a printing expert to learn if the size of our porposed leaflet is economical for printing and also to get his expert opinion on the layout. He also can advise us on the selection of type, both for the text and for the headings.

10. This is the actual writing of the text and the preparation of the pictures, drawings, and other illustrations. There should be understandable word captions below each illustration. The primary purpose of illustrations and their captions is to help the reader to understand your message.

The writing in the leaflet should be down to earth. As government writers, let's quit writing scholarly, technical language solely for the purpose of impressing our superiors with our learning. We need to write publications as if to inform a person seated face to face with us, not as an oration to a crowd. Use short sentences. Use easy, familiar words. Explain strange terms such as "foreign exchange" and "rationalization of industry." One effective writing device is to ask and answer questions such as "How does the 9-point program affect housewives?" and "What goods are too high in price to compete in export markets?" Finally, we should write in such a way that the reader's interest in our subject is maintained throughout the publication. Frequent use of the word "you" will help keep this interest alive.

Now we have written our leaflet and we are about to carry out the last command: Try it out.

11. We must check the text and illustrations for completeness, accuracy, and clarity. We make the initial test with ourselves. Are any pertinent facts about the 9-point program omitted? Are our statistics correct? Is it perfectly clear why housewives should not buy in the blackmarket? All right, we have satisfied ourselves but we must check with people around us who typify our ultimate audience, the general public. Our 9-point leaflet can be checked relatively easily during a short ride in and around Tokyo. We can show it to a factory worker, a house-

wife, a university student, a government worker, and even a farmer without traveling beyond the Tokyo metropolitan limits. What should we try to find when we test a publication? First, we want to determine whether the language characters are easily understood by the reader. Then, we want to find out if the ideas are clear to him. Finally, we want to find out if our sales talk really appeals and makes sense to the reader. If our proposed publication falls down on any of these points, we need to revise it.

It has taken many hours to plan and prepare our leaflet but now it is done. We are ready to send it to the printer, and we have every reason to feel confident it will accomplish our purpose.

After this somewhat detailed discussion, I know many of you are thinking: "Yes, the steps for preparing a publication appear sound but they are too complicated to apply to every government publication." My reply is that you unconsciously follow certain steps no matter how you prepare a publication. But the steps you follow at present are likely to be too few or too incomplete. Try faithfully to follow the steps outlined here for one or two publications, and you will find that you will be following them easily and enthusiastically for all publications.

In conclusion, I suggest that you apply these standards to measure the effectiveness of your publications:

1. Will the publication actually reach the intended audience?
2. Will the audience read it if it does reach them?
3. Will the audience understand it?
4. Will they believe it?
5. Will they act on it?

HOW TO IMPROVE THE TYPOGRAPHY OF GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS

Kanichi Nagashima, Chairman,
Investigation Board, Asahi Shimbun Publications Research Room.

At a time when commercial publication of books and magazines is improving because of the introduction of the latest printing techniques, new ideas and planning, and when competition among publications is increasing, doesn't the feeling linger that pamphlets and leaflets circulated by government offices have failed to shed the shell, style, and format of obsolescence? This failure lessens the public's liking and confidence in pamphlets and leaflets circulated by government offices and thus frustrates the aims of the publications.

I wish to explain how improvements can be made in the typography of government publications. Specifically, the cover, title, design, text and illustrations should be planned to arouse and maintain interest.

The style of the text is especially important. Using plain phrases

such as arimasu, official documents recently have undergone a sweeping change and are easier to understand. Nonetheless, some technical terms still used are difficult to understand. It is necessary, therefore, that the text should be changed into the spoken language, so that it can be understood as we read. In addition, hiragana should be used to avoid unnecessary Chinese ideographs. For it must be realized that the sense of "weight" coming from a display of Chinese letters greatly hampers the will to read.

Whether printed words are legible or illegible depends largely on the quality of paper and ink used. But the most important factor, needless to say, is the type. The size of type, shape, length of line, letter spacing, space between lines, arrangement of lines and margin — nothing is more vital in printing than these elements.

In the case of the Japanese language, about 10,000 Chinese characters are normally required to print a book. At present, the number of characters for regular use has been restricted to about 1,850. For our purposes, it will be most appropriate to adopt the Ming Dynasty type which was originated by Mr. Shozo Motoki, who might well be called the father of Japan's printing art. It has thick vertical and thin horizontal lines and is the most legible. The Ming Dynasty type is the most suitable for publications meant for the general public.

Besides Ming, there are types known as Ching Dynasty, gyoshotai (semi-cursive style), soshotai (cursive style), reishotai (ancient style), and Sung Dynasty, all of which have individual characteristics. Some of them are difficult to read, and, therefore, are inappropriate for popular publications.

There is another type called Gothic which, having thick vertical and horizontal lines, is used for headlines, medium, and small sub-headings. It is helpful in emphasizing parts of a sentence. Gothic is divided into two types: "thin Gothic" which has thin lines and "round Gothic" which has round-cornered letters. Because the latter is not attractive, it is not advised for popular publications.

From the Meiji to Taisho eras, "No. 5 type" generally was used for publications. As compared with the present type point, it is equivalent to 10.5 point. With the improvement of publications the size of type has become smaller and at present, 9, 8 and 7 point are most frequently used.

The size of type should not strain the eyes, especially in Japanese farming villages where electric bulbs of very low candle power are used. In books and magazines, 10-point types are used for children, and 9 or 8-point for adults. However, I suggest the use of 10 or 9-point types for adult publications and less use of smaller types.

How long a line of type should be and how many letters should be in a line are determined by the size of the paper. It should be remembered at all times that a publication should be "easy to read."

The scope of normal human vision (the field one can see without moving the eyes) is very narrow. One's visual power, which is 1.2 degrees for an object in focus, drops to 0.1 for an object five degrees away from the focus point. This illustrates that the longer the line is, the more one has to move his eyes. To repeat this in succession tires the optical muscles. Thus it is necessary to restrict lines suitable both in length and width.

In Japan it has been a rule to set 50 to 60 characters of 9 point type to "dignify" certain articles in magazines, but when a line has that many characters we are confused and frequently read the same line twice or skip a line. This kind of printing obviously should be avoided. Type set up without space between line is very difficult to read and strains the eyes. One half space is adequate.

The way to arrange lines varies according to the kind of publication and its size. In order to break monotony, it is necessary to give variety to the space by putting in cuts, photos, statistical graphs, or sub-headlines.

Another rule is to make many paragraphs. As has been pointed out, words written in a long line are difficult to read. Likewise, solid type without paragraphs is unattractive and difficult to read.

Though it is necessary to fill as much space as possible, there should be blank spaces at the top and bottom and at the sides of pages. Fully printed pages reduce the reader's interest. However, it is unnecessary to have three and four blank pages in front or back, as many government publications do.

Needless to say, the cover should be attractive, whether it is a picture, photo, or painting. It also is necessary for the title to convey a clear idea at a single glance. As the title is, so to speak, a signboard, it must not be round-about nor lengthy in its message. The type needs to be clear and understandable at a glance. In this regard, foreign magazines and pamphlets serve as good models.

In summary, I believe that the study and understanding of typography are prerequisites to improving printed information materials.

LOCAL PRODUCTION OF INFORMATION MATERIALS.

F. B. Judson, Visual Education Specialist, Education Division, CIE

It is obvious to everyone in the information field that national budgets will no longer allow, ministries to conduct nationwide campaigns entirely with their own funds except in unusual cases. Therefore every community resource that can be utilized legitimately must be called upon to help accomplish the same result. For this reason we should explain the possibilities of employing local talent and local materials to further national information objectives.

Many, and in some cases, all of the materials needed for the conduct of a successful information campaign, can be produced locally. The word "local" means the lowest echelon upon which ministry information officers can depend for assistance in carrying out their program. This echelon may be at the prefectural level, at the gun level, or at the town, city, or village level, or all of them. Wherever it may be, however, the materials and the approach must be keyed to the possibilities and limitations likely to be encountered at the level employed.

Here is one method by which planning at the national level can be translated into local action, when it involves the production of any kind of promotional material. To give unity and style to a national campaign means that the national ministry involved must in some way convey ideas and suggestions to local leaders so that the material they produce will achieve the desired effect with a minimum of trouble to them and with maximum advantage to the program. For this purpose your attention is called to a "field information kit." These kits can be produced in any style, size, or degree of detail. By means of this kit, every local unit can receive the same set of suggestions and ideas so the basic ideas and style remain the same, though local treatment may differ. It is important to mention at this point that local entities are free to accept or reject any suggestions.

To develop the kind of promotional ideas shown in the field kit the program must be planned in its entirety well ahead of time. Aside from obvious reasons, advance planning means that if films, film strips, or other items are produced at the national level, many of the materials for the field kit can be obtained easily and cheaply in the process.

Since an understanding of this method of getting support from the local levels will be easier if I use a specific example. I have chosen to work out a set of materials for such a field kit on the woman's cooperative movement. In developing this sample field kit, the film "Backs Bent with the Years" has been employed because it demonstrates a source of pictorial material that can be used in a variety of ways.

Another reason for basing this demonstration field kit upon a motion picture is to try and show you that a motion picture will lose a great deal of its effectiveness if other media are not employed at the same time to take advantage of the atmosphere that a motion picture can create.

One good film with the audience properly prepared and with a definite follow-up program is 10 times more valuable than three or four with little or no discussion. Educational pictures should be used to attract an audience, to create a sympathetic attitude, and to set the emotional stage for more practical and direct local follow-up activities.

Suppose that our problem is to encourage the participation of women in cooperatives and to show them what they can achieve. Let us also assume that from "Backs Bent With The Years" our task is to develop other

materials which can be used with it by local leaders.

Typical scenes from the movie can serve in still-picture form as illustration material for posters, newspapers cuts, pamphlets, window displays, photo enlargements, magazine stories, and cartoon strips.

But, to plan for effective use, we must decide upon the type of audience we want to reach since its composition will be determined largely by the methods we employ to publicize the film and present the issues.

The first step should be to study carefully each of the media that might be employed to see what ideas or material suggestions we can put into this field kit for the use of local leaders.

Two general types of ideas or material suggestions should be considered: one, those which concern more or less static exhibit materials, such as window displays, exhibits, photo enlargements, posters, and cartoons; two, activities such as quiz contests, premiere showings of displays or films, utilizations guide for films, magazine and newspaper publicity stories, and special promotional stunts. Even if the local people have the ability, they may not have the time to devote to thinking up new ideas, new designs, and new promotional schemes. That is the job of the national agency. But encourage local initiative in every way you can; the more talent you can develop, the easier your task will become.

Let us take the different media as they come to mind: films for instance. Films by themselves are not enough. Local leaders must have utilization or study guides which will tell them how to use the film -- how to set up and run discussion meetings with your films.

If you do not plan film showings carefully, you will only entertain and probably fail to get your important ideas across. Your field kit for each program should include detailed plans for the different types of meetings, rallies, and demonstrations.

Posters come next. Three or four posters should be developed with suggestions for type, color, and the basic thought for each poster. Presented in the kit, the local leader has in his hands something which he can ask local artists or art students, in his group or community, to help develop.

If window displays would be helpful in the exploitation of this program, three or four typical displays of the kind that could be produced locally should be worked out, photographed, and sent as suggestions to local outlets.

The fondness of the public all over the world for comic strips gives special importance to the use of such strips in promotional campaigns. Several such strips should be developed by an artist and engravings made available to local groups at cost so that they can be printed and distributed locally. Orders for the strips can be placed by local people with the national agency.

Although all programs do not involve motion pictures or film strips, advantage should be taken of the photographic illustrations which they can provide. We must take a lesson from commercial theaters which use still-pictures of their film productions as the basis of most of their advertising effort.

Photographs that concern the subject of the program, though they may not be connected directly with a film, should be collected by the national ministry and copies made available to local groups upon order. The price of the print of enlargement is given in the kit as well as the time it will take to secure it. By concentrating reproduction at the national level, great savings can be made over the local production cost of photo material.

Because the subject of photographs is so important, one of the first things that any information section should undertake is the establishment of an adequate file of photographs that are in any way concerned or connected with the programs of the section. I have had occasion to call upon many of the ministries, trying to find illustrations that would explain some phase of Japanese life or business. It has been disappointing to find how little use has been made of photographs. The only outstanding exception to this has been the Japan Travel Bureau, which has made intelligent use of photographic material.

Plans should be made to set up a systematic plan for buying negatives of pictures that are important to any national program, preferably on a freelance basis. Every ministry should scan the files of newspapers and other organizations that produce pictures and buy prints or the rights of reproduction.

Prefectural officials should be asked to send in pictures. Freelance photographers should be solicited to submit pictures regularly for possible purchase. If this is done, in a year or two, you will be amazed at the amount of useful and valuable photographic material that can be assembled and that can provide the basis for a great deal of your promotion effort. There also is a big advantage in having a staff photographer or photo department to call upon.

Now, to consider other media, the local use of which can be stimulated and guided by the field kit.

Contests of all kinds always have been a favorite device for creating and maintaining interest in programs. Radio contests of the quiz type are very useful and entertaining. School contests also may be advisable. With the consent of the Board of Education and principals of the schools involved, suitable prizes may be offered for student posters, essays, and ideas.

Motion pictures offer an unusual opportunity for premiere showings to which local dignitaries and officials can be invited to lend prestige to the occasion and to your programs.

Printed publicity will take various forms. Magazine publicity ordinarily must be arranged nationally. If a film is involved the film fan magazines undoubtedly will carry a story if properly written for a specific publication. Publicity of this kind on a national scale should be timed to appear when it will best help the local program. Reference to national articles should be made in local material. Many local magazines and newspapers will carry publicity if it is well written, particularly if it is or can be made appropriate to local conditions. For that purpose a number of short interesting stories should be written for the field kit.

It is also wise to remember that follow-up activities some time after the start of the program will bear fruit. If there has been a contest or if activities are undertaken that last over several months, there should be a final round-up of the results achieved which can take the form of a report, a speech, newspaper stories, or a letter report to the individuals concerned.

If there is any thought which those of us engaged in information activities should keep in mind, it should be that repetition, however varied, is the key to success. In closing, I want to reiterate that the participation of local government in an information program is at all times on a voluntary basis.

SESSION NO. 8
MOTION PICTURES

CHAIRMAN
S. Murakami, Information Chief, Labor Ministry

MOTION PICTURE PRODUCTION PROCEDURES AND STANDARDS
Frank Judson, Education Division, CIE

Producing a motion picture is a creative and technical undertaking which only trained people can or should attempt. But those of you who are responsible for having films made and when made, for using them, must have some understanding of production problems and some standards of evaluation at various stages in production. Today I should like to suggest and discuss some of the procedures that can be helpful to both you and the motion picture producer you select so that your films will be successful.

Obviously, from our point of view a film is only successful when it does for us what we want it to do. A picture can be extremely interesting and still fail of its purpose, if we do not keep in mind at all times the main objectives of our information plan.

Therefore, we must start our picture production by setting forth our objectives, as simply and clearly as possible. Both we and those with whom we must work must clearly understand what we hope to accomplish.

Such a first step seems so elementary that I would hesitate to mention it if it were not for the fact that so many people fail to clarify their thinking on this point. It must be emphasized again: step one is to have your specific goals clearly and definitely in mind before any decision is made as to the means of reaching them. Step two, which is closely connected with step one, is to study your audience in order to decide what media will be most effective. For our purposes today I have assumed that motion pictures, radio, newspapers, posters, kamishibai, publications, and supplementary visual aids such as film strips, models, displays and exhibits will be the primary media we will consider using to carry our message to the public.

Step three, the choice of media, must be based upon a study of the potential audience in relation to the objectives that have been decided upon. It is true that our choice may be limited by the amount of money available but the principles being discussed will still hold.

Now, it is at this point, all too often, that films get into serious trouble. Everyone likes films; they are entertaining as well as instructive. But often it is taken for granted that a film can do the whole job. So, a film is produced - with the discovery made too late that other media were needed too. Remember that films are only one of a number of informational media and should only be used when they make a unique contribution, when they will do something for your program that other media of information cannot do, and most important of all, films are usually efficient only in combination with other media; they need to be backed up with other media. If we can assume that we have taken the first three steps, namely that we have decided upon our objectives and clearly stated them, that we have studied our audience, and have decided upon a motion picture as one of the media that will be employed, then and then only are we ready for step four - the production of the film. Unfortunately, we are already too familiar with the usual procedure at this point. A producer friend is called in, the picture is discussed, and some weeks later a picture is delivered which may or may not be what you want. If you are extremely lucky it may be what you need. But you can't count on it. And you shouldn't blame the producer unless you have done your part as well. You can't leave the whole job up to him - information sections must be responsible for much of the pre-production planning and research if you expect the producer to do his part well.

Now what should you do? Complete your rough planning for the use of any other media you intend to use with the motion picture. You are likely to find that doing so will influence strongly the kind of picture you think you want to make. You may also develop ideas and material that will be extremely useful to your script writer. And, most important of all, you will discover that your film can become an integrated part of your whole program instead of a single star attraction that has little relation to the rest of the show. So, plan your whole program at the same time.

Usually the expense of a film limits the number to one but if you will

think of your program in terms of two years, three years or even five years, you can plan several films, perhaps seven or eight. Upon that basis, then, your whole field of actual and potential activity should be studied and a list of desirable films should be drawn up. Why go to all this trouble? Because, by thinking ahead, your films can be planned in a series, integrated with each other, and they will be useful for a much longer period of time.

The building of a house provides an interesting analogy. Suppose you want a big house, with many rooms and many features but you can only afford a modest two room structure at the moment. If you know what you want eventually, your two room house can be planned so more rooms can be added later. Eventually, in time, you will have the big house you originally wanted - but to get it, you must keep the plan for the large house in mind when you plan for the small one.

Are we ready now to choose a producer? What have we done so far to prepare ourselves so that we talk intelligently to producers and make wise decisions? If you have followed my suggestions you will have a clear statement of the purposes of the program that will be extremely useful to the producer and writer; you know what kind of audience will see the picture and what other materials you will be using with the film; you will have some idea of future film needs and you will have assembled all possible data for the writer's assistance, including all the photographs you can obtain that in any way relate to your program.

Though it may seem like a digression if I speak about the value of a photographic department or file for a moment, I assure you it is not. This is a pictorial age but no one would ever guess it, if they had attempted, as I have recently, to get photographs or drawings from several national ministries. Tons of reports and statistics are available but not a single good picture. Any good publicity or information expert should lean heavily upon photographs. If you cannot afford a full time photographer and dark room, then buy pictures or commission commercial photographers to cover the more important aspects of your program. Get pictures of people that work in your field, of projects in various parts of the country, of new developments, of anything that pictorially explains the whys and wherefores of your work. Such photos will become the most valuable material you can possibly have. One picture is not necessarily worth one thousand words but a good picture can save the time it would take to utter them. At all costs, get pictures that concern your program and keep them up to date. Photographs will help convey your ideas to your film producer and writer and others with whom you work. They will give them an understanding of your problem that otherwise would require days and weeks to dig out. It is your responsibility to help the producer and writer if you want a good picture, and photographs can be your best assistant. Also insist on stills of every scene in your film. Such pictures will make good filmstrips and afford valuable illustrative material for pamphlets and posters.

The general attitude is to turn producers loose on their own, hoping

they will come up with a good idea and repeating the routine until some lucky writer happens to hit upon the ideas you like. That is an expensive and time wasting way to get a suitable script. Let's assume that you have all the background information and you are ready to pick a producer. As information experts I take it for granted that you see all of the films in yours and related fields. Therefore you may already have formed some opinion as to the ability of certain companies, certain writers and certain producers. But if you are starting fresh, make inquiries about the best recent films, call the producers in, give them a basic outline to study and invite their comment and after making your choice, ask for a treatment or expanded synopsis. Do not commit yourself to the entire picture until you have received a suitable treatment that embodies the main ideas in the picture and gives some idea as to the kind of story development that you feel will do the job.

Writers vary greatly, both in ability and in their reaction to certain kinds of material. Some writers like fact films, some prefer a highly dramatic style, some combine the best features of both. Whatever kind of writer your producer gives you, insist that he be paid well because your picture will be only as good as your script. It's true that a good director can make a fair picture with a bad script but he will make a much better one with a good script. Here in Japan I have found that the writer is vastly underpaid in comparison with other countries, a fact which undoubtedly accounts for the poor quality of many films. A script is like the blueprint of a building; no builder hires a cheap architect because he realizes the building will suffer. So, if you are buying a film, insist upon a good writer and good writing if you want a good picture.

You do not have to be a motion picture expert to judge the quality of a script. You should not criticize the technical aspects of the picture but, as the purchaser, you are entitled to an opinion about the dialogue and the scenes that accompany it. How often do you find that the voice on the screen is talking about one thing while you are actually looking at something entirely different? It is a simple matter to tell whether the narration and the picture are correlated. If they are not, something is wrong. The voice and the picture should be a unit; they should go together and reinforce each other.

One way to achieve this unity of sound and picture early in the process of script writing is to ask for rough sketches of the scenes in the picture. They can be done cheaply and will pay for themselves by preventing misunderstandings and making it easy to follow the story. It is easy to drift into meaningless generalities when no pictures are present but even a poor sketch will force the writer to come to the point. Ask your producer to furnish rough sketches of each scene. When finally approved, these same drawings become extremely useful to the director of the picture. For the record, then let me list the basic steps which you can take to help the producer and to exercise supervision over the

film you are buying - without interfering too much with the producer. These are:

1. A clear statement of objectives.

2. Treatment or synopsis - get the outline settled before you go to the expense of the final script.

3. Script and visualization of scenes so that narration and picture can be checked.

4. Checking of the script by specialists, if necessary.

5. Actual photographing, including still pictures of each scene.

6. Screening of rough cut for approval to go ahead with the narration.

7. Final Print and approval.

8. Preparation of utilization guide - pamphlets or folders that tell those who will use the picture how to employ it in their meetings.

9. Release and followup - coordination with other media being used.

As far as information experts are concerned, it is my opinion that they should be equally concerned with the distribution and utilization of their films. Most ministry people in the past have been content to get the picture made and then forget about getting it shown where it will do the most good. You must plan for the showing of the picture as carefully as you plan for the picture itself. Information should be available on all outlets or audiences for your film such as department stores, clubs, churches and temples, schools citizens' public halls, libraries, universities, institutions, etc.

Reference materials should be prepared to accompany the film and for the use of interested members of the audience. A discussion guide for the use of leaders should be available and definite showing schedules should be worked out. Suggestions for audio-visual library use of the film should be sent out, along with posters and other material that will help publicize the film and interest an audience. Commercial motion picture companies in the U.S. prepare such materials in a single unit which they call an exploitation kit or package. In such packages

are contained suggestions for every possible way in which the picture in question can be advertised and made known to the public. Then the local managers select from this kit the items and ideas they can use in their part of the country - publicity stories, ads, stunts, exhibits, posters, tie-ins with products, and other devices that will spread word about the film.

Now for a final word about the relationship of the buyer and producer of films. I said before that producing films was a highly technical job but that does not mean that a buyer should not know something of the costs and difficulties involved. An ignorant buyer is at the mercy of a sharp producer and often fails to appreciate an honest one.

Too many times I have seen an entire film made from old newsreels scenes that cost almost nothing because violent objections were offered by the purchaser to the cost of shooting original scenes. The buyer of films should know the cost of location shooting versus simple studio photography; should appreciate the fact that speaking parts generally require actors; that a good musical score costs more than music previously recorded and used in other pictures. In other words, the buyer should have some idea of the real cost of the various items that go into a picture. Only in this way can an unscrupulous producer be controlled or the good work of an honest and conscientious one recognized. Unfortunately, there is too little understanding of film production and consequently the standards are very low. An informed buyer who will insist on better pictures will get films that appeal to a greater audience.

In conclusion, let me remind you that motion pictures are one of the emotional mass mediums, whose potential value depends as much upon the way they are used as upon their dramatic quality. Therefore, do your best to find an honest and capable producer, work with him closely, give him all the help he needs, then see that the film is used the way it should be - as a part of your whole program.

HOW ENTERTAINMENT FILMS INFLUENCE THE PUBLIC

Harry M. Slott, Motion Picture and Theatrical Branch, CIE

The rise of the entertainment motion picture has been phenomenal. From an innocent novelty it has become a powerful medium of mass entertainment. Its power reaches the world over. People in all parts of the globe pattern a good deal of their conduct, morals, styles, and public opinion from what they see and hear in motion pictures.

Let us glance at some statistics. In the United States there are approximately 20,000 cinema theaters; in the European continent, about 55,000, and in Japan 2,200. It is reported that in Japan during 1948, 600,000,000 persons paid admissions at commercial theaters. These figures are presented to illustrate the importance of the film as a means of reaching people throughout the world.

How can the entertainment film be utilized as an information media? There are moral and social problems in our daily life that must be solved. People are looking for an answer to these problems. A film story utilizing a current economic theme becomes recognizable to the people who see it because they are confronted with the same situations in their daily lives. I suppose that is why social themes that have universal appeal become what is termed box office hits. Naturally, producers are guided by what draws people to the box office, and they will always lend a friendly ear to an idea that may have national or international appeal. It will be well worth the efforts of information agencies to explore this field.. You will find that studios will cooperate in this common cause.

Many film companies have accepted suggestions to produce films dealing with both economic and social problems. Such subjects as social welfare, taxation, and blackmarketeering have found their way to the screen in dramatic form.

Information specialists should continue to advocate the production of films that will contribute to a better understanding of the problems in present-day Japan. In countries where freedom is denied, the film is used primarily to propagandize. We in a democracy believe in a free screen.

I should like to call to your attention the background of The Murderer, a film produced by the Shochiku Motion Picture Co. This was originally a mock trial staged to show new court procedure. At the suggestion of the Supreme Court Information Section, Shochiku became interested in using the basic idea for a screen story. After conferences between members of the Supreme Court and writers of the film company, the story finally came to the screen. This was an outstanding effort in bringing the new judicial system to the attention of the people of Japan via the entertainment film.

In the film The Brightest Day of My Life, the locale is a coal mining area. The story attempts through the characters and by dramatic effect to explain the need for increased coal production to strengthen the Japanese economy. A mining company cooperated with the producers to make this film an outstanding contribution to the coal information program.

There are many other recent films which also deal with political, social, and economic themes and which have contributed to information programs. Some of them were suggested by information sections of different ministries, others were proposed by individual producers. In many cases, the latter received free advice on technical phases of the picture, as in the case of The Murderer. It obviously is to the advantage of information specialists to encourage the types of pictures which will further their programs and for them to provide the technical information which producers may require. Of course, motion picture producers are

free to choose their themes and to develop them as they see fit, but I believe you will find that most of them will welcome your suggestions and assistance.

DISCUSSION

Question (National Tax Office): With reference to documentary pictures made for the government, if we leave everything for the producer to do, he might make a film against our policy. How about that?

Answer (by Mr. Judson): If they make pictures against your policy that is your problem. You are paying the bill and should get what you want. I want to say this, however: Don't try to tell the producer about the technical aspects of production. That is his speciality and what you are paying him for. Making a picture is like going to a doctor; if you don't believe in the doctor there isn't much use going to see him.

Question: I would like to suggest that it is necessary for Government information sections to select a good film company. Some are good and some are not.

Answer (by Mr. Judson): Yes, I quite agree with you. I think also the government agency should be concerned with getting a number of bidders for any film it wants made.

SESSION NO. 9
ORGANIZATIONS

CHAIRMAN
M. Aoki, Dentsu Advertising Agency

PRIVATE ORGANIZATIONS AND GOVERNMENT INFORMATION PROGRAMS

Ethel B. Weed, Women's Information Officer, CIE

One of the most difficult problems which citizens and government of Japan alike have tried to solve under the new constitution is the relationship between government and private citizens' organizations. Prewar Japan's totalitarian patterns of thinking and action have not been changed completely so that a truly democratic relationship has been difficult to develop. Paternalism also affects this relationship. On the one hand citizens groups ask for freedom to appraise objectively and comment critically upon government programs. On the other they demand financial support from the very government agencies which they wish to criticize.

To Americans, freedom to speak as we wish and freedom of assembly are inextricably bound to the concept that private organizations cannot accept subsidies or favors from the government without in some way losing their right to select the government programs which they want to

support. We also believe that government cannot give favors to one private organization without compromising its pledge to treat all of them alike. We believe that help from the government to a private organiation is using the taxpayers' money to bid for votes on the part of the political party in power. And no matter how poor an organization may be, its freedom to act as it wishes is more precious than any help the government might give. Thus in a democratic government it is political suicide even to suggest giving monetary or other favors to an independent citizens' group, or for government to use undue pressure to urge the formation of such groups even for laudable purposes.

For the police to go from door to door as they have in Japan urging women to form organizations to combat juvenile delinquency; for the government to supply ready-made constitutions, and then to be present at the inauguration of the group, would be unheard of in a country schooled in the ways of democracy. This type of activity would be looked upon as intimidation by the police and might well resolve itself into removal of the police officials. Certainly such action would immediately cause the newspapers to publish a flood of editorials unfavorable to the police and the government agency that permitted such actions.

This connection between aid from the government to organizations and political power has been difficult for many Japanese to understand. Certain Japanese organizations actually h ve fought for the right to maintain their offices in government buildings and to use government franking privileges. Then at election time, officers of these same groups have complained bitterly when the mayor or governor has tried to use their groups for political purposes.

To break with this past and to develop a fundamental respect for mutual rights and responsibilities is the task for both government and organizations today. To accomplish this, government, even more than citizens groups, needs to understand thoroughly the limits which democracy places on its activity in securing the cooperation of citizens' organizations in its programs. This responsibility is primarily in the hands of the information agencies.

What shour a government information chief do to get the cooperation of citizens groups?

First, a warning; don't move anyone to action until you have a plan. Don't breathe a word about an information campaign unless you have a good idea of what you want to do. Don't turn to citizens' groups with every idea that you dream up. There's a limit to their capacity for helping and many groups are over-burdened with doing jobs that government itself should be doing.

In these days of many changes, it is perhaps wise to confine contacts with citizens' organizations to long term projects encompassing

ideas that need be a part of democratic thinking. Implanting knowledge of basic laws of fundamental reforms, giving the people information which they must have in order to be effective citizens - these are important activities for citizens' groups. Let the radio, newspapers, and other mass media carry the burden of short-term campaigns that require quick action and then are finished.

Having decided that your project is fundamental, you ask: What citizens organizations can co-operate? The procedure common in Japan of turning this question to a government agency, such as the Social Education authorities is a pernicious one. Funneling all government programs through one government agency kills initiative, stifles competition, and leads that one government agency to feel that citizens' organizations are its special prerogative. Moreover, such a procedure tends to limit the citizens' contacts with his government, and makes it difficult for him to see the importance of information programs in all the ministries.

The wide awake information agency which understands the psychology of good public relations will have its own list of co-operating organizations and will contact citizens directly -- not through any go-between. This contact may be by mail or in person, as the situation warrants.

The next step requires that you know something of the needs of organizations, what they are able to do, and what they are not able to do. This same wide awake information agency then will analyze the needs of organizations of various types: labor, farm, industry and white collared workers. It will know something about educational and professional groups, housewives and working women — what they are likely to accept at the various age, education, and economic levels. Above all, the section of the information plan which deals with organizations will reflect the results of surveys showing how much the general public understands about any given subject and will provide materials which answer the needs.

Winning the support of an independent-minded citizens' organization in a democracy is much more of a task than sending an order down the line through a hierachy accustomed to obey at every level. When citizens know that they do not have to attend government-sponsored meetings, that they may accept or reject materials disseminated by the government, that they may actively or passively co-operate in a program depending on their own time and budget, the government soon finds that it not only has to provide an effective program but it also must be prepared with a variety of appeals to induce the citizens' co-operation. And the government's program is really a success when at last the demand for materials come from the people -- when they recognize their power to persuade you to prepare the type of information they need. Japan is still far from reaching this point.

So having decided (1) that your program must be developed through organization and, (2) that you have plans for or have already prepared adequate materials, the next point is to consider how you are going to win support.

Probably the best way is to call a conference of organization leaders, being very careful to include all appropriate groups. At such a meeting you take the organization leaders into your confidence and give them full information about the problem which you propose to solve through an information program. Present at this meeting are government officials to answer questions of the club leaders. There may be opposition to your program and the only way to resolve this democratically is to provide answers to the questions raised. If you do not know the answers, say so. After full discussion of the problem, you then outline the plans of the government, tell what you intend to prepare in the way of materials and indicate what you hope organizations may do to help. You ask for help and you give the organization an opportunity to suggest what they may do. At this first meeting, too, do not expect citizens' organizations to make final commitments. People present at this meeting are only representatives of organizations and they have no final authority to act. They collect ideas, learn the details of what you intend to do and what you want and they report back to their organizations where the matter may be discussed, accepted, or rejected.

From this point on, your function may be two-fold: (1) to provide information materials such as leaflets and pamphlets, exhibits, and, if your budget is large, motion pictures; and (2) to keep a general information program in progress so that the public is always aware of your objectives. Against this background the individual organizations can plan their own program, using your information materials as desired. You may need follow-up meetings with the organization heads so that they may learn the extent of the all-over pregress and measure the degree of their success. Confidence and cooperation on the part of government and organizations are the keynotes to success in this aspect of an information program.

I'd like to give a warning. It is my impression as a result of countless meetings in Japan and in other countries, that too often the information agencies confine their activities with organizations to such familiar techniques as distributing posters, providing speakers, and pamphlets. Moreover, the meetings consist of speeches by government officials who may or may not answer questions. While this type of program is an easy way to reach great numbers of people and is valuable, many people who have been reached in this fashion again and again are searching now for something more satisfying. I recommend strongly that information agencies prepare materials that may serve as discussion guides and materials through which organizations may develop small study groups on specific problems. Materials of this kind, in the long run, are more effective than long, dreary speeches by officials.

Most information chiefs deal with programs which could be put into discussion guides. Through this type of material, information agencies can help develop new leaders and new lay authorities in rural, legal, social, and political matters. This is one of the best ways to break down totalitarian patterns still lingering in Japan.

EDUCATION GROUPS AS MEDIA

John Nelson, Adult Education Officer, Education Division, CIE

Let us first consider how education groups have been used in the past by government agencies for information programs. Usually a directive was issued to a prefectural office requesting it to assist in sponsoring several conferences on subjects which the national government wanted publicized. The prefectural officials then contacted the leaders of youth organizations, women's organizations, and professional organizations. The leaders of these organizations were requested to encourage members of their respective organizations to attend the conference.

Since the same organizations were repeatedly contacted by government representatives and the same leaders asked the same people to attend various conferences, there has developed a group in Japan which might be called "professional conference attenders." They are only a select few, and they attend whether they are interested in the subject or not. They attend because the leaders of organizations have said that the government has "requested" them to come. A "request" is still interpreted by many leaders of private organizations as an order.

Heretofore, there has been very little publicity to inform the general public about such conferences. There were no press releases and no radio announcements because the government officials knew that they could, with a minimum amount of effort, "request" the "professional conference attenders" to come.

When the conference convened it consited largely of a group of government officials reading lectures from prepared notes. Few if any printed materials were distributed among the attendants. They were expected to remember what the government officials said and repeat it to the members of the organizations which they represented.

Private organizations frequently have been considered by government officials simple as extensions of the various arms of government. Such use of private organizations by government agencies presents obvious dangers. Government agencies cannot "use" private organizations without exerting influence over them which frequently borders on control. The new law, of course, prohibits government control over specific private organization so long as the organization operates within the law, except insofar as the law prescribes certain conditions to be met before a private organization can become a juridical person.

Both government and private agencies have been anxious to get information materials of all types in the schools, no matter whether the materials have been adapted for school age groups and no matter whether they have any relation to the subjects taught in schools.

If government agencies were to use the schools as distributing agencies for information materials, they conceivably could also use the

schools as agencies for carrying on propaganda campaigns to support the particular government in power. If private groups, such as the Communist Party, were allowed to use schools as agencies for distributing propaganda, schools would no longer be democratic educational institutions. School children would simply become the tools to be used by an outside agency to further its own ends.

Perhaps we should answer the question, "Just what do we mean by education groups?" I think we may classify them into three categories: (1)educational institutions under the control of public authority: (2) private organizations whose primary interest is education; (3) private schools.

Let us first consider educational institutions under the control of public authority. The institutions under public control include the following:

a. National universities under the control of the Ministry of education.

b. Public universities under the control of municipal or prefectural governments.

c. Certain elementary, lower, and upper secondary schools under the control of prefecture boards of education.

d. Municipal, town, and village schools under the control of local boards of education, or, pending their establishment, under the control of mayors and headmen of towns and villages with certain supervisory powers remaining with the Prefecture Boards of Education.

In addition to the schools listed above, Citizens' Public Halls, which are provided for in the Social Education Law, are placed under the control of local boards of education, or, pending their establishement, under the control of mayors and headmen of towns and villages. For the time being libraries and museums also are administered by boards of education.

When various agencies of the national government have information which they believe will help education, they should forward the materials through appropriate channels to the authorities which exert administrative control over the various educational institutions. No government agency has the right to distribute posters, motion pictures, or other information media directly to the schools without the consent of the proper authority named above. The proper authority may decide that information materials provided are not suitable for the schools. No private group has any right to distribute propaganda in the schools. It is up to the administering authority of public institutions to see that they do not. The decision of the administering authority is final.